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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

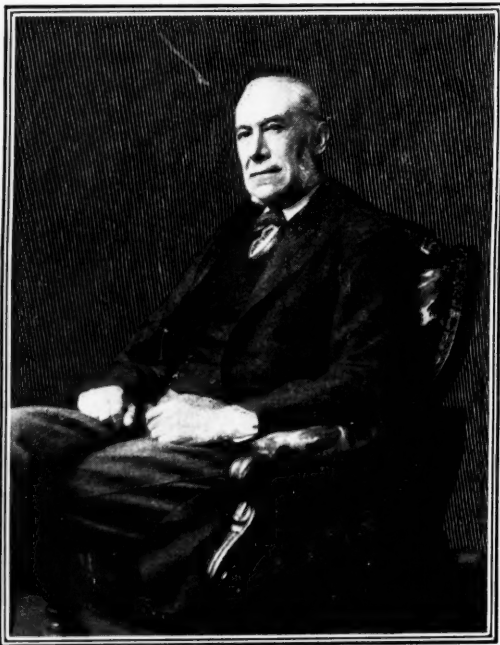
The President's Return to Washington. By the middle of May, President Roosevelt was back at his desk in Washington, in the best of health and spirits, after five weeks of recreation in the Western States. He had traveled six thousand miles, and passed through twelve States and three Territories. The only States which Mr. Roosevelt has not visited since he became President are Florida, Louisiana, Alabama, and Arkansas, and he will probably accept the hospitality of those commonwealths before the end of his term. His recent journey was undertaken primarily as a hunting trip, but, apart from his adventures in the quest of Colorado bears, in which the whole country evinced a keen interest, several things occurred which made the journey memorable in other ways. After emerging from the fastnesses of Colorado, where he had been engaged with his party in hunting grizzlies on those days when he was not storm-bound, the President took occasion, at Denver, to give utterance to certain definite views which he holds on the subject of railroad-rate regulation. In addressing the Chamber of Commerce, he reiterated and emphasized the declaration that he had already made to Congress in favor of the policy of extending the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and of giving that body the power to fix freight rates, and to have the rates thus established go into effect practically at once. A few days later, stopping at Chicago on his way Eastward, the President had an opportunity to address to representatives of the striking teamsters in that city a few needed words in support of Mayor Dunne's policy of law and order and suppression of violence. For some reason, the strikers had assumed that a call had been made for United States troops. As a matter of fact, the federal government had not been asked to interfere in the Chicago labor difficulties; but President Roosevelt said, in reply to a memorial from the strikers, that in every effort to prevent violence by mobs or in-

dividuals Mayor Dunne would have the hearty support of the President of the United States,—as he should have that of every good citizen. During his brief Chicago visit, President Roosevelt was the chief guest at a dinner given in his honor by the Iroquois Club, the leading Democratic organization of Illinois; and this unique courtesy extended to the President by his political opponents typified the non-partisan character of the hospitality which greeted him throughout his Western journey. More than once in the course of his travels the President repeated and emphasized his unequivocal determination not to be again a candidate for the Presidency.

Transportation Problems. On the President's return to Washington he found the International Railway Congress just concluding its deliberations.

Several such congresses have been held in past years in Europe, but the first to assemble in the United States was the one which gathered at Washington on May 3 and remained in session for some ten days. There were more than five hundred foreign delegates in attendance, and for their benefit a remarkable exhibit of railway appliances was made by American manufacturers. In the development of these appliances Americans may take a proper pride, since it is undoubtedly true that in this country more practical progress has been made in railway invention and improvement than anywhere else in the world. Yet it is probable that the American public was more keenly interested in the discussions and declarations of the congress on the subject of transportation rates than in anything that could be learned from it touching on the purely mechanical side of railway development. Secretary Taft's frank statement to the delegates that a railroad cannot be managed as private property was taken everywhere as a declaration of the principles recognized by the national administration as the basis of the Government's relation to the railroads. For some

weeks the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce had been sitting in Washington, giving hearings to eminent railroad experts on the subject of rates and rate-control. Many of these experts had declared themselves as opposed to the proposition, advocated by President Roosevelt, of giving additional powers for the fixing of rates to the Interstate Commerce Commission. The views of these men, most of whom were railway officials, had received wide currency, and it was generally believed that the members of the Senate committee had already practically made up their minds against a policy of government regulation. Secretary Taft's speech, coming almost simultaneously with the President's reiteration, at Denver, of his well-known advocacy of a regulation policy, tended to counteract the impression that was gaining ground in the country to the effect that nothing, after all, would come of the railroad agitation, but that the roads would continue to have things their own way. One or two of the more disinterested experts who appeared before the Senate committee also advocated some system of rate-control as a safeguard against conditions which might become, sooner or later, intolerable, and which would lead to far more radical measures of relief than President Roosevelt has ever proposed.



SIR FRANCIS MOWATT.

(A prominent English delegate to the International Railway Congress.)



MR. STUYVESANT FISH.

(President of the Illinois Central Railroad, who debated the rate question with Secretary Taft before the International Railway Congress last month.)

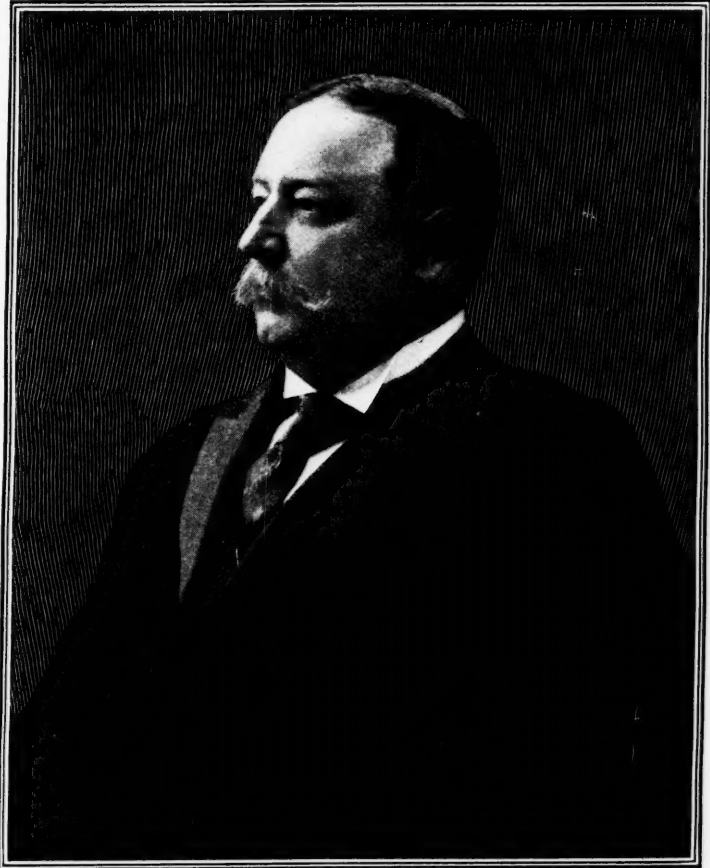
*The Public-
Service
Corporations.*

In some of our great population centers, during the past two months, interest which usually centers in matters of national policy has been transferred in a noticeable degree to questions of local welfare. In New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago, problems of municipal ownership and municipal control of public utilities continue to engage the public mind to an absorbing extent. The action of the New York Legislature, while it stopped short of the demands made on it by public sentiment in the metropolis, still resulted in several substantial gains. The bill to secure 75-cent gas for the people of New York failed of enactment, but an important step in that direction was taken in the creation of a gas commission. In Philadelphia, the proposition to accept on behalf of the city a lump sum in lieu of annual rentals from corporations for the municipal gas works excited unusual opposition and failed to receive the assent of Mayor Weaver. A contribution to this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS explains the peculiar civic situation in Philadelphia, and shows how difficult it is for business questions like this to get a fair discussion and settlement. The Illinois Legislature has been occupied with bills affecting the ownership and operation of public utilities in the city of Chi-

cago. A bill was passed empowering the city government of Chicago to prescribe maximum rates for gas and electric light. A recent decision of Judge Grosscup seems to remove the last technical obstacle to the acquirement of the Adams Street railway system by the city of Chicago. Before the city can begin the actual operation of this street-car line, however, a referendum will be necessary, and also a referendum on the proposition to issue certificates to pay for the required equipment.

*New York
Legislation.* The work of the

New York Legislature that attracted most attention beyond the borders of the State itself was the legislation affecting New York City. Besides the gas bills, to which we have already alluded, a bill was passed taking the power to grant franchises in the city away from the Board of Aldermen and conferring it upon the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, a small body of officials elected by popular vote. Another important change made by the Legislature was the lengthening of the term of the mayor from two years to four. This measure was generally approved by all parties in New York City, on the ground that two years is an insufficient time in which to carry out a distinctive municipal policy, and that a good man may be deterred from accepting office, on the ground that he cannot surround himself with officials who will be able to give a successful administration under such conditions. The legislation aimed at the so-called "Raines law hotels," requiring such establishments to obtain certificates showing compliance with the building department's requirements before they can obtain licenses for the sale of liquor, while it was passed by the Legislature and approved by the governor, will not become immediately effective because it was not in force on the first day of May, the date on which liquor licenses for the ensuing twelve months were issued. It



Photograph by Prince, Washington.

SECRETARY WILLIAM H. TAFT.

(Who took part last month in the discussion of railroad-rate regulation.)

was provided, however, in an additional bill, that on the request of a taxpayer an inspection of any hotel shall be made to see whether it complies with the requirements of the building, fire, and health departments; if it is found to violate such requirements, its license is to be immediately revoked. Thus, something may be done even during the present year to rid the city of these objectionable resorts; but if anything is accomplished, it will have to be on individual initiative.

*The
Question of
Water-Supply.* Bills were passed by the Legislature establishing two water commissions, —one to be appointed by the mayor of the city of New York, to ascertain available sources for an additional water supply, and another creating a State commission, to be appointed by the governor, without whose approval

no municipality or town shall have power to condemn land for additional sources of water-supply. It is hoped that in this way the interests of the towns and villages situated in the territory adjacent to New York will be protected, while the city itself will be enabled to proceed with the establishment of a scientific and adequate system of water-supply. From the city's point of view, however, this seems a needlessly roundabout method of reaching the desired end. Some of the most vicious bills before the New York Legislature—notably the so-called Niagara "grab" bills—failed of passage. On the whole, it may be said that most of the legislation tends to secure the results desired by the better public sentiment of the State, the most obvious criticism being that the measures as passed and signed by the governor do not go far enough in the desired direction.

*Forest
Preservation.*

Some of the most important State legislation this year has been that relating to the care and culture of forests. Thus, the State of New Jersey has created a State commission, of which the governor and the State geologist are ex-officio members, and has intrusted to this commission such important duties as the reforestation of denuded lands, the prevention of forest fires, the administration and care of the State forests on the principles of practical forestry, coöperation with private owners of woodland and encouragement of the preservation and growing of timber for commercial and manufacturing purposes, and the preservation of forest tracts around the head waters and watersheds of all water-courses. This is regarded as the most comprehensive forestry law yet passed by any of our States, but some of the Western and Central States, as well as the older commonwealths of New England, are taking an active interest in forest preservation. On the Pacific coast, California, Oregon, and Washington have each made special provision for fire wardens, and have taken other measures to prevent the devastating forest fires which have occurred in past years. Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Indiana have passed laws with a similar purpose. To encourage reforestation of denuded lands, the State of Vermont has exempted from taxation all uncultivated lands planted with timber under regulations made by the State forestry commission. North Dakota, being especially desirous of increasing her forest resources, has passed a law which allows an annual reduction in taxes of three dollars for each acre planted with any kind of trees, set not more than eighty feet apart, in holdings of 80, 120,

or 320 acres. President Roosevelt issued a proclamation setting aside about ten million acres in Idaho as a forest reserve. California has at last turned over the Yosemite Park to the federal government, and the Legislature has



SENATOR FRANCIS G. NEWLANDS, OF NEVADA.

(A leading champion of the Government's irrigation policy.)

appropriated seventy thousand dollars toward a joint investigation to be undertaken by the State and the federal forestry bureaus, for the purpose of ascertaining the best methods of forest preservation.

*Irrigation
Progress.*

While the general government is thus coöperating with the States in the nurture and preservation of our forest resources, it is carrying forward with rapidity and success an irrigation policy which will soon reclaim for cultivation thousands of acres in the arid regions of the West and Southwest. The Truckee-Carson irrigation project, which is described in a special article contributed to this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, is to be formally opened on June 17. The State of Nevada was never able to undertake a comprehensive irrigation enterprise, owing to its small population and insignificant tax returns, but, largely owing to the energy and persistence of Senator Francis G. Newlands, the federal government (which is really the owner of more than 95 per cent. of the State's area) has stepped in and brought to a successful conclusion this

work of national importance, which bids fair to add immensely to the resources of a State that has heretofore been seriously handicapped in the development of its agricultural resources.

*Various
State
Problems.*

An indication of the sentiment that prevails in the West in favor of the prevention of discrimination in railroad rates is afforded by the attempts of States like Kansas and Washington to create railroad commissions with power to hear complaints and make rules and regulations for the eradication of such abuses. The State of Oregon has made provision for the connection of one railroad with another, requiring each road to transport the cars of the other at reasonable rates. If the rates cannot be agreed upon between the two railroad companies, they are to be settled by arbitration before a board composed of the governor, the secretary of state, and the State treasurer. The purpose of this law is to encourage the building of short railroad lines extending into undeveloped territory and connecting with trunk lines. The railroad bills before the Wisconsin Legislature, advocated by Governor La Follette, were all passed after a long and exciting contest. In addition to the railroad legislation in the Middle and Western States, the usual number of changes in systems of taxation were made throughout the country. In a number of States commissions were formed for the purpose of gathering information to enable the legislatures at future sessions to amend and perfect the laws relating to the assessment and collection of taxes.

*West Virginia
Tax Laws.*

About four years ago, such a commission was appointed in the State of West Virginia, and the report made by that commission resulted in the passage of a series of laws at a special session of the Legislature, last August, which are of far-reaching effect. As in several of the older and more populous States, notably New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, the policy now adopted in West Virginia is a complete separation of the sources of State and local revenue. The ultimate result of the new laws will be to do away entirely with a real-estate tax for State purposes. After three years there will be only a State tax of 5 cents on \$100, all of which is to be devoted to public-school purposes. One important feature of the new system is the creation of the office of State tax commissioner, whose duty it is to study the tax systems of all the States and suggest improvements in the West Virginia laws, to execute the laws, to instruct the assessors, to assist the State board of public works in its yearly assessment of steam and

street railroads and other public-service corporations, and to attend to various other matters of administration. This year, all the lands in the State are to be reassessed, and this work is to be performed by assessors appointed and supervised by the State tax commissioner. After 1908, there is to be an annual reassessment of all real estate, for which purpose assessors are to be elected by the different localities, but their work is to be done under the supervision of the State tax commissioner. The county court is to constitute the board of equalization in each county, and the State board of public works is the final board of equalization.

*The Chicago
Teamsters'
Strike.*

Grievances of certain unions of garment workers in Chicago culminated last month in a sympathetic strike of the Teamsters' Union, an organization which has come into a position of power during the past three years. This sympathetic strike attained an importance in Chicago out of proportion to the number of strikers involved. Only about four thousand teamsters were actually on strike; but the delivery of goods by the great department stores, and by several of the more important wholesale establishments and manu-



Photograph by Collier's Weekly.

NEGRO DRIVER IN THE STREETS OF CHICAGO, GUARDED BY ARMED DEPUTIES.

facturers, could only be accomplished through the Employers' Teaming Association, an organization chartered under the laws of West Virginia and claiming the protection of the federal courts. There were outbreaks of violence in the streets,

Photograph by *Collier's Weekly*.

THE CHICAGO TEAMSTERS' STRIKE.—WAGONS PROTECTED BY POLICE.

at least three of the strike-breakers being killed. The drivers of the Employers' Association had police protection. Trade-unionist leaders everywhere saw that their cause was imperiled by every resort to violence, and after a few days normal traffic conditions in the streets of Chicago were practically resumed. Many of the contracting team-owners at first sided with the strikers and declined to order deliveries of goods made where the teamsters refused. The Employers' Teaming Association then bought out some of the contractors and leased the wagons of others, while the merchants brought pressure to bear on those team-owners who had not been bought out, declaring that all their contracts would be forfeited if they did not make deliveries. As a result, the team-owners' associations advised the teamsters to call off the strike.

*Peace in the
Labor World.*

The Chicago strike serves to direct public attention to the fact that in the month of May, this year, the number of such disturbances throughout the country was less than in any May of recent years. On the first day of May, 1904, there were 45,000 industrial employees reported vol-

untarily idle; on the corresponding date of the present year, there were less than 10,000. Since the beginning of the present year, not more than 30,000 persons are reported to have struck, as against 170,000 in the first four months of 1904. This change in conditions is particularly to be noted in the building trades, which are reported as unusually active the country over. Except for the Chicago strike, it may be said that there are now fewer clouds on the American industrial horizon than for many years.

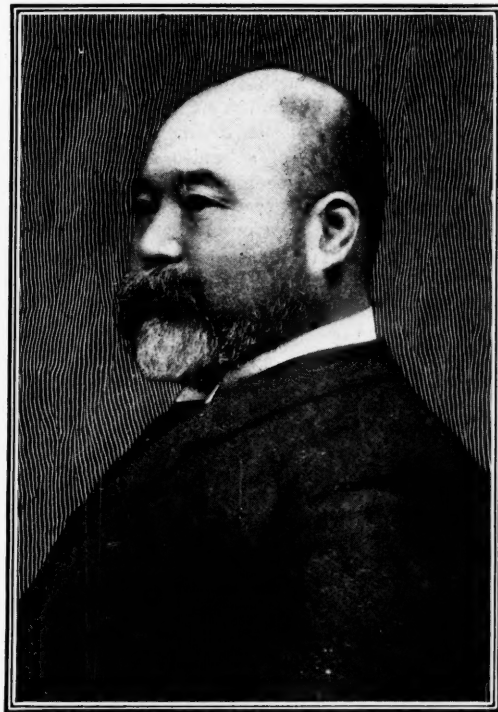
*International
Finance.*

So much of the financial community's attention converges on the day-to-day fluctuations of speculative markets that it is often apt to lose sight of the broader movements of finance. A survey directed, not to the shifting panorama of the stock exchanges, but to the wide horizon of the world's prosperity, discloses a very striking situation. Since the world-wide revival in prosperity began, eight or nine years ago, it has twice been rudely interrupted,—first, by the outbreak of war in South Africa, with the resultant complete derangement of English finance; next, in this country, by the collapse, in 1903, of a dozen or

so of the huge industrial concerns, built up hastily and insecurely in the excitement of 1901. Each of these incidents brought its penalty, in the shape of a period of financial uncertainty and reaction, lasting a year or more. The Transvaal war blockaded a group of gold mines which had been sending \$80,000,000 per annum to the money markets, and at the same time forced the British Government to draw, for war expenses, fully a billion dollars from these same markets and from its taxpayers; it started, therefore, a train of events which depressed European finance for two years after the return of peace. Germany's "company boom" broke down disastrously; London was compelled to borrow, on an enormous scale, from the Paris bankers; money at Paris went to the highest rate in a decade; British consols, the premier security of the world, fell to the lowest price since the London panic of 1866. On this side of the ocean, insolvency of such enormous industrial companies as the Asphalt Trust, the United States Shipbuilding, and the Consolidated Lake Superior; reduction of dividends in others, and assessment of shareholders in still others, came, along with acute distress of powerful capitalists engaged in these enterprises, and with failure of banks which had stood behind them. This led, at the close of 1903, to what many observers deemed the end of our cycle of prosperity. Yet what we see to-day in England is a market which has mostly paid off its floating obligations, and whose affairs have resumed a normal aspect. Germany once more displays all the signs of active industrial vigor. France has so far regained its financial wealth and power that, in the face of the Eastern war, it has kept undisturbed its \$1,600,000,000 Russian securities and has advanced \$100,000,000 more to the St. Petersburg government in war loans.

Our Own Prosperity.

The United States, after a twelve-months' halt in its trade activity, has again moved forward, with evidence on all sides of healthy industrial expansion. Two tests habitually applied by experts as a measure of trade conditions in this country are the exchange of bank checks at its clearing houses, showing the volume of business actually done, and the consumption of manufactured iron, showing the plans of general industry. If merchants, bankers, and manufacturers make fewer payments through their banks, it means that the sales and purchases in their industry are reduced. If orders for iron and steel diminish, it is a sign that manufacturers, builders, and transportation companies foresee small business and are curtailing orders for new machinery, new structural



MR. K. TAKAHASHI.

(The Japanese financier who engineered from his London office the flotation of the last Japanese loan in England and the United States.)

material, and new rails or cars. Each of these signs of the times foretold with unpleasant clearness the reaction of 1903. The shrinkage in clearing-house exchanges, and the cutting in two of the country's iron production, pointed unmistakably to the coming storm. But the storm passed over rapidly. This season, bank checks put through the country's clearing houses have surpassed all records in our history, rising in value 50 per cent. over 1904. Iron production has reached a magnitude twice that of December, 1903, and never approached in the history of the trade. Consumption at the rate of nearly two million tons a month, where a million tons was the highest monthly average of any year up to 1900, is witness to the state of our industries.

How It Is Accelerated.

Explanations of this renewed forward movement of prosperity throughout the world are numerous and interesting. The most familiar, and perhaps the most convincing, assumes that we are now, as we were in the so-called "boom times" of 1901, moving with one of those prolonged swings of

prosperity which recur at reasonably regular intervals,—generally once in twenty or twenty-five years. Such movements, when they come, are apt to gather such force, on the basis of genuine underlying conditions, that the advance movement will continue during a number of years before a state of absolute equilibrium of supply and demand seems to be restored. In the present case, the general movement of prosperity has already continued five or six years, interrupted only by casual reactions. This is a general explanation; there are others more specific. The very exceptional increase in the world's gold output is one of them. Precisely how much influence such production has on financial and industrial prosperity is a debated question; its influence on the movement of credit, however, through the expansion of coin reserves in the world's great banks, is undoubtedly considerable. In 1896, the whole world's gold output, estimated by our mint, was \$202,251,000. In 1903, it reached \$325,527,000. Estimates for last year place the yield at \$358,000,000. It is noteworthy that this increase has occurred notwithstanding the fact that the gold output from the Transvaal mines has not even yet regained the volume reached just before the outbreak of war, in 1899.

*Our Increased
Gold
Production.*

It is largely the gold production of the United States that has made good the difference. In 1896, this country's gold production slightly exceeded \$53,000,000. In 1903, the figure had risen to \$73,591,000, and last year we turned out no less than \$84,551,000. This is an output which very far exceeds all records in our country's previous history. At the same time, another and still more potent influence has been at work in this country's favor. Cycles of overproduction and cycles of underproduction of the necessities of life seem to follow one another with fairly regular sequence in the world's development. The reason is, no doubt, that when demand for grain and cotton has become urgent and their prices high, there results at once wide extension of the producing area. This in time provides such additions to the annual crop that consumers' annual wants are again supplied with ease, and prices fall again. To this the usual response is, reduction in the less profitable agricultural area. At present there is no doubt whatever that agricultural producers throughout the world are finding it difficult to keep pace with normal demands from consumers of grain and cotton. This means highly profitable prices for these staples, in whose production this country leads the world, and consequent great prosperity of the producing districts.

*The
Trade
Outlook.*

The outlook for continuance of the general forward movement just described is an interesting problem. In so far as concerns this country, it is safe to say that the tangible evidences of active trade for the present and the future are as numerous as they have been at any previous epoch in the industrial revival. Such qualifications as come to mind are those which always appear when financial skies are bright and confidence so abundant as to lead to rashness. Of this we have already had some taste in the extravagant "promotion" enterprises of 1900 and 1901, and the repeated excesses of stock-exchange speculation. On the other hand, it is an odd fact that some arguments which have been adduced to show a changing position are direct results of our great agricultural prosperity. For many years our wheat exports have been the mainstay of our foreign commerce, and more than any other influence have served to maintain our commanding position in the foreign trade. So great, however, has been the increase of home consumption of such products that a comparatively slight decrease in the annual harvest has reduced our wheat exports to the smallest figure since 1872 and placed the country far down on the list of wheat-exporting states, where we held, but a few years since, undisputed primacy. But this is a situation which cannot be regarded with the same pessimism as might follow reductions in our foreign trade unaccompanied by such signs of active home consumption. Abroad, the interesting factor in the situation is, of course, the Eastern war. Financial requirements of such a contest, forcing on each belligerent an expenditure of something like a million dollars daily, is a heavy drain on the money markets of the world. During the fifteen months of the present war, Japan has borrowed \$260,000,000 on the American and English markets, while Russia has raised at Paris and Berlin something like \$200,000,000. When sums of this magnitude have to be provided on short notice for the destructive purposes of war, it will usually happen that many legitimate industrial enterprises must postpone their plans because not enough ready capital is left to advance to them. This is one reason for the very deep concern with which Europe's financial markets are watching for signs of an ending of the war.

*Our Tariff
Relations
with Germany.*

Some stir was caused in American commercial circles last month by the announcement that Germany had fully decided to terminate the tariff arrangement now existing with the United States. The new German tariff, it will be remembered, was adopted

about two years and a half ago, but, owing to certain commercial treaties which could not be terminated without due notice in advance, the new law will not go into effect until March, 1906. In the meantime, Germany has negotiated seven special commercial treaties with European nations, all of which have been adopted. These treaties all make important modifications in the schedules of the new tariff. Heretofore, the United States has enjoyed important tariff concessions on certain articles of trade through the operation of the "most favored nation" clause, which dates back to a treaty made between the United States and the King of Prussia as far back as the year 1828. Thus, American wheat, corn, and other dutiable merchandise have been imported into Germany at the lowest rates of duty which had been granted to Russia, Austria, or any other nation. Furthermore, a special agreement was concluded between the governments of Germany and the United States, in the year 1900, whereby important modifications were made in the duties fixed by the Dingley law on certain articles of German origin, so that the principle of reciprocity has operated to the development of our trade with Germany in a marked degree. We have been importing from Germany more than one hundred million dollars' worth of goods each year, while we have shipped to that country goods to the value of something over two hundred million dollars. No other country in the world sends to Germany products of equal value. If, now, this country has to face a situation created by an entirely new set of German tariff schedules, many of them showing a marked increase over the existing tariff, our first concern is to know what treatment is to be accorded to our chief rivals for the German trade.

Discrimination Against American Products. Consul-General Mason, at Berlin, has transmitted to the Washington government an exhibit of the German tariff duties showing the maximum on each article under the present law, the reductions made by treaty, the autonomous duties to go into effect in 1906, and the reductions granted



HIS ULTIMATUM: "DOT ISS DER LAST TIME VOT I PUY SOMETINGS HERE YET, IF I HAF TO CLIMB ME DOSE STAIRS UP. VAT?"

From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).

to certain European countries on important articles of import. From this tabulation it appears that in the schedule relating to dried apples, pears, peaches, and apricots, of which the United States now exports large quantities to Germany, there will be important changes under the new tariff and treaties. The present duty of 95 cents per 100 kilograms will be increased to \$2.38, while imports from Italy, Roumania, Austria-Hungary, and Servia, countries which produce a surplus of these dried fruits, will continue to be admitted under the old duty of 95 cents. If our wheat and rye are to be subject to the full duties of the new tariff, we shall be compelled to pay 47 cents per 100 kilograms more duty than wheat and rye from Italy, Roumania, Austria-Hungary, and Servia. Our wheat export to Germany last year amounted to nearly six million dollars. Passing to manufactured products, we find that American sewing-machines, of which we sent to Germany more than nine hundred thousand dollars' worth last year, will be seriously discriminated against through the treaty which Germany has negotiated with Switzerland, by which Swiss machines are to be admitted at a duty of \$2.85 per 100 kilograms, as compared with the autonomous

tariff rate of \$8.33 which the United States will be compelled to pay. These are only a few instances out of many which might be cited to show the handicaps which now seem certain to be placed upon our trade with Germany until some form of reciprocity arrangement can be entered into at once through which the interests of both nations may be protected. It is understood that the German Government is ready to negotiate a reciprocity treaty, but the best friends of such a policy in this country do not look forward with hope to the prospects of such a treaty when it comes up for ratification in the United States Senate.

Western Prosperity and the Portland Fair. In the meantime, our export trade in general, and especially that with the far East, is making rapid growth.

The customs reports from month to month for the Puget Sound district indicate that the current fiscal year will prove the greatest for its export trade in the history of that district. It is estimated that the exports for the year will exceed the imports by fully \$15,000,000. The chief articles of export from the port of Seattle are flour (which is a local product), cotton, and cotton goods. The total exports of the month for the Puget Sound district amounted to \$4,702,616. Another indication of the general prosperity of the Pacific slope and the far Northwest is the promptness with which the Lewis and Clark Centennial Exposition has been brought to completion. The fair will be opened to the public on June 1, but early in May it was announced by the directors that the construction had practically been completed and it only remained to give the finishing touches to the landscape work. Usually, expositions in this country are open five or six months at least, but the Portland fair will continue for only four and a half months. It is aimed to have the exposition as complete on the opening day as when it closes, and the favorable weather of the past winter, combined with an absence of labor troubles, has enabled the directors to achieve this unusual record. The original features of the exposition site were comprehensively described in the April number of this REVIEW.

Sanitation at Panama.

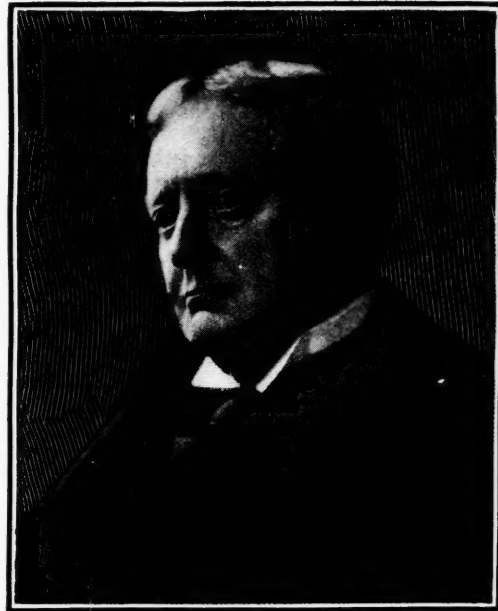
The most important problem before the reorganized Panama Canal Commission during the past few weeks has been the problem of sanitation. Yellow fever has made serious headway in both Panama and Colon, and several government officials have been its victims. Considering the unwholesome sanitary condition of the Isthmus prior to the beginning of active operations by our govern-

ment, it is not at all strange that the fever persists there. We could hardly expect Colonel Gorgas to banish the plague within a single year, but we ought to recognize the fact that conditions are greatly improved, and that daily progress is being made in cleansing the plague-spots. Before the end of the present year, the towns will have good supplies of pure water, sewer systems, and street-paving. These three improvements ought to go a long way toward eradicating the scourge, yet we must not expect results as conclusive and sweeping as those that were reached in so short a time at Havana. Panama is much farther south, and the situation there is harder, on many accounts, to cope with; but the commission has done away with needless delays, and has given Colonel Gorgas every facility for carrying out his plans. The recent outbreak of fever is now well under control, and hospitals for the detention of affected patients have now been provided. Besides these sanitary measures, the commission, of course, has under consideration various engineering plans for the completion of the canal. As between the sea-level project and the lock system, no decision has yet been reached; but perhaps it has not been fully understood by the public that the work on the canal can go on for two years before it will be absolutely necessary to have a definite working plan. The consulting board of engineers will meet in September to decide on the final plans.

Our Home-Coming Ambassadors.

The cordiality of our relations with the countries of Europe is being demonstrated by notable expressions of good-will to our retiring ambassadors. Mr. Choate leaves London with more than the hearty good-will and regard of our British brethren. His election to one of the most highly prized positions in the British bar,—Bencher of the Inner Temple,—is evidence of his popularity in England. This body (the Inner Temple) is one of the four English Inns of Court which have played a great part in the history, not only of English jurisprudence, but of English literature. General Porter's departure from Paris also was marked by a banquet, at which the French premier and almost all the cabinet were present and made complimentary remarks touching our ambassador's stay of eight years in Paris. Mr. McCormick had also received evidences of high regard and appreciation upon his departure from St. Petersburg. These three ambassadors have most worthily represented American dignity, traditions, and interests in the great European capitals to which they were accredited, and have sustained the reputation American representa-

tives have always had in those cities. Mr. Reid, in London; Mr. McCormick, in Paris, and Mr. Meyer, in St. Petersburg, may be relied upon to uphold the same worthy traditions. Important changes in our diplomatic service to several South American countries were also announced,—the transfer of Minister John Barrett from Panama to Bogotá, and that of Minister Russell from the Colombian capital to Caracas. Mr. Bowen had been given a leave of absence from Venezuela, and had returned to the United States to assist the President in investigating certain charges (afterward proved without foundation) against former Minister to Venezuela Francis B. Loomis, now Assistant Secretary of State. Mr. Loomis had been Mr. Bowen's predecessor at Caracas, and the latter had reported to Washington accusations current in the country affecting Mr. Loomis' reputation. Latin America is sending us some of its very best men. For example, the new Brazilian ambassador to the United States, the first representative since the Brazilian legation has been made an embassy, is Dr. Joaquim Arelio Nabuco de Araujo, a scholar and an orator, whose writings on international law are well known in this country.



HON. JOSEPH H. CHOATE.

(Who retired last month from the American ambassadorship at London.)



GANYMEDE CHOATE AND THE AMERICAN EAGLE.

"He goes back to his home with his duty well and nobly done, taking the universal respect and admiration of a kindred nation and his own."—From *Punch* (London).

The Representatives of Russia and Japan.

Other diplomatic changes of great importance to American interests, and destined, beyond a doubt, to have considerable effect upon the future relations of the nations now at war in the far East, were the retirement of Count Cassini, as Russian ambassador, from Washington and the appointment of Baron Rosen to succeed him, and the intention of the Japanese Government (not yet actually carried out) of raising the Japanese legation in this country to the rank of an embassy. The seven years of Count Cassini's stay in Washington, during most of which he has been dean of the diplomatic corps and very popular socially, have been important ones in Russo-American relations. Elsewhere in this issue an outline of Count Cassini's career and his attitude on important questions of the day are presented. His successor, Baron Rosen, was formerly Russian minister to Tokio, and while at the Japanese capital was one of the strongest advocates of peace, vigorously opposing Admiral Alexiev's warlike preparations in Manchuria. Baron Rosen has the respect and admiration of the Japanese, and his appointment to Washington, where, it is believed, at least some of the peace negotiations will be conducted, is looked upon in many quarters as an indication that the peace party is in the ascendancy at St. Pe-

tersburg. Baron Rosen's acquaintance with this country and the American people extends over a period of some thirty years. He has been consul-general at New York, and was *chargé d'affaires* at Washington during Mr. Cleveland's first administration. In an interview, in St. Petersburg, in the middle of May, upon the announcement of his appointment, Baron Rosen is reported to have declared that in Russia the word "American" has always been synonymous with friend. He, like Count Cassini, attributes the change of sentiment in this country toward Russia to a misunderstanding,—a misunderstanding which he "sincerely believes the future and impartial history will correct." It is confidently expected that Baron Rosen will take part in the peace negotiations. The excellent services of the Japanese minister, Mr. Takahira, have deserved the most generous recognition at the hands of his government; and, far as the American people are concerned, he would make a very satisfactory ambassador at Washington. The Japanese minister's personality and career are touched upon on another page in this number of the REVIEW.



BARON ROSEN.

(Successor to Count Cassini as Russian ambassador to the United States.)

*British
Finances and
the British
People.*

Even if the Tory government were not losing ground at every step, the presentation of the budget would be a most important and interesting event in British politics. In his speech accompanying the presentation of the budget, Mr. Austen Chamberlain, chancellor of the exchequer, declared that there was a large surplus (£14,000,000) in the national treasury. Contrary to the general expectation, however, he did not announce any reduction in the income tax, which is now higher than it has been since 1864 (except, of course, during the period of the South African war). Last year it was increased from elevenpence in the pound to one shilling, and made payable on all incomes over £160, with an allowance for life insurance as the only deduction. The middle merchant class, which has been gradually becoming alienated from the Tory party, had been looking for a reduction of this poundage to the eightpence rate, which had come to be looked upon as the permanent rate in normal years. Mr. Chamberlain, however, has seen fit to use the surplus in a way to relieve the poorer classes. He has effected a reduction of the war import duty on tea, a reduction to go into effect on July 1. In accordance with the habitual custom of the chancellor of the exchequer to draw some social or economic inference from the budget figures as he presents them to the House of Commons, Mr. Chamberlain indulged in some speculation as to the cause of the shrinkage of the revenue from beer and spirits, which was £137,000 below the estimate. In his opinion, this shrinkage is "largely attributable to a change in the habits of the people."

The masses are discovering other places in which to spend their leisure time and money than public-houses. They go more to theaters and music halls, and cheap excursions absorb much of the money that once was spent on drink.

He did not say, although he probably might have done so with some truth, that the reduced expenditure for liquors is due in some degree to the industrial depression, a fact indicated by the increased expenditure by the "poor law" guardians, as brought out in his own figures.

*A New British
Naval
Programme.*

Problems for naval defense came up for heated discussion in the British Parliament during early May. Speaking as chairman of the Committee of Defense of the Admiralty, Mr. Balfour had announced a new distribution of the British navy. Heretofore, the fundamental plan of British naval policy has been to safeguard England, and in accordance with this it has been maintained that the British navy must always be

equal, at least, to the combined fleets of the two next greatest naval powers, and, furthermore, that there must remain within British waters, or within easy distance thereof, a force fully able to shield England from invasion. Mr. Balfour, however, denied the validity of the assumption that Great Britain must maintain in the North Sea or the British Channel a force at least equal to any that Germany or France could combine against her. He quoted the opinion of Lord Roberts, that it would be impracticable for any power to invade England with less than seventy thousand men; that transportation of such an army could not be effected in less than forty-eight hours, requiring at least two hundred thousand tons of shipping; and that even Germany and France combined could not muster in their Atlantic and Channel ports half that tonnage. Britain, Mr. Balfour boasted, had never been successfully invaded since the Norman Conquest. Considerable opposition had been evident to Mr. Balfour's assumptions, and this opposition is expected to increase. It remains to be seen whether the British people will sanction the premier's naval programme. Meanwhile, British Liberals, in anticipation of their early return to power, are reported to be concerned over the pending renewal of the Anglo-Japanese alliance. This alliance will expire in 1907, unless notice of renewal is given at least a year in advance. There is no disagreement as to the necessity for renewing the treaty. As to terms, however, there is a difference of opinion. Japan does not wish to be bound by the provisions which compel her to recognize the sovereignty of the weak Korean emperor. She is also anxious to secure to herself in the future the active assistance of her ally's navy and not have even the moral weight of the alliance nullified by such a compact as the Anglo-French *entente*. The existing treaty binds England to assist Japan only in case the latter country should be attacked by two great powers at once. The very substantial but politely disavowed assistance rendered by the republic to Russia's naval operations in far-Eastern waters has brought home forcibly to the Tokio government the extreme difficulty of proving just when it is entitled to the aid of its ally.

A Constitution for South Africa. The draft of a new constitution for the Transvaal was issued in London on April 25 and transmitted at once by Colonial Secretary Lyttelton to Lieutenant-Governor Lawley, together with the announcement that, in the opinion of the British Government, the time is not yet ripe to grant complete autonomy to the Transvaal. The constitution

provides for a legislative assembly, consisting of the lieutenant-governor, six to nine official members (appointed by the crown), and thirty to thirty-five elected members. The elected representatives are to be voted for by white adult male subjects of the British King who were entitled to vote for the first Volksraad under the former republic, as well as those white males of British birth occupying lands or buildings renting for not less than fifty dollars per annum, or having a capital of at least five hundred dollars. English is to be the official language of all the debates in the assembly, but the president of the Volksraad may permit a member to address the assembly in Dutch. Negroes are not permitted to vote. All financial measures must be recommended to the assembly by the governor, and no money can be appropriated without his authority. The Boers consider this constitution a violation of the peace treaty made May 31, 1902, by which self-government was promised as soon as the country was in a settled condition. A good part of the English press criticises the government for surrendering elementary education to the Dutch, and some agree with the Boers in condemning the new constitution as a breach of faith. Both the parties in the Transvaal now working for self-government, the People's party (composed mostly of Boers) and the Responsible Government Association (composed of British who favor the policy of "trusting the Dutch"), are now combined in opposition to the government. Large numbers of the Boers, it is reported, disappointed at what they consider failure to observe the terms of the peace treaty in granting self-government, are moving to German East Africa. Certainly, as many of the British leaders prophesied when the war ended, Great Britain is having as much trouble in reconstructing the Boers as she had during the time she was fighting them.

Religious Tolerance for Russia? While there had been but little improvement in the military and industrial situation in Russia, and no great man capable of command had emerged from the millions, the months of April and May, nevertheless, witnessed several really hopeful signs of progress and enlightenment in the future. The conviction seems to be dawning on the Russian mind that in holding the Church in servitude the state has paralyzed progress, and that, while the lack of political liberty is bad, the denial of religious liberty is many times worse. On the eve of May Day, which was expected to have witnessed all kinds of bloody disorders, on the morning of the Russian Easter, the Czar published a decree which deserves to rank with his rescript leading

to the Hague Peace Conference. This later rescript proclaims absolute religious liberty to all the subjects of the empire,—Orthodox, Roman Catholic, Non Conformist, Buddhist, or Moham-medan. Heretofore, while all religions have been tolerated in Russia, there have been certain very important exceptions, permitting of an immense amount of persecution and injustice. For example, no member of the state church could leave that church to enter another without losing all his civil rights, and no church other than the Orthodox had the right to proselyte. Furthermore, when members of the Russian Church and those of any other church married, it was necessary to have the ceremony performed by an Orthodox priest, and the law insisted that the children of such marriages be brought up in the Orthodox faith. These restrictions have been particularly hard on the Old Believers, as they are called,—a body which separated from the Orthodox Church two and a half centuries ago and has since suffered all kinds of persecution. The new ukase recognizes the various orders of priesthood among the Old Believers, and gives them the right to celebrate marriage. To all the dissenting sects,—Roman Catholics, Lutherans, Jews, and others,—is accorded the right to erect houses of worship without restriction. This ukase was in response to a memorial presented by ex-Minister of Finance Witte, pleading for the restoration of liberty to the established church. On another page of this issue, the Witte memorial, with comments, is given. Whatever may be the limitations revealed by the full text of the ukase, it is a most remarkable and significant document in the history of Russian liberation. The response of the Old Believers to this restoration of their religious rights is immediate and generous. On reliable French authority, it is announced that the sect has decided to contribute \$500,000,000 for the Czar's project of double-tracking the Trans-Siberian Railway.

*Progress
in Other
Reforms*

A number of Liberal congresses held throughout the past month indicated the progress of the reform movement throughout the empire. At Moscow, thirteen hundred doctors from all parts of European Russia, when restricted in their deliberations to scientific and technical subjects, passed a resolution condemning the government as corrupt and inefficient, and unable to cope with a cholera epidemic which had broken out in the Caucasus region. Radical improvement in the economic conditions of the country is necessary, further declared the resolution, for the preservation of the national health. A congress of lawyers in St. Petersburg passed similar reso-

lutions, and were dispersed by the police. The Association of Russian Journalists, numbering among its members Gorki, Korolenko, and Gessen, passed a resolution of sympathy for the mother of the assassin of the Grand Duke Sergius. Meanwhile, a good deal of disorder had continued throughout the empire, and in Zhitomir, the capital of the government of Volhynia, southwestern Russia, racial riots had broken out, in which a number of Jews were killed and wounded. Reliable reports, however, indicate that material concessions to the Jews are really contemplated. As to the question of the summoning of the national assembly, or Zemski Sobor, which has been uppermost in the minds of the people for so many months, the Czar reiterates his intention to convene that body. In reply to the assembly of nobles at Kostroma, the Emperor stated: "My will regarding the convocation of representatives of the people is unswerving, and the minister of the interior is devoting all his efforts to its prompt execution."

*Concessions
to
Poland.*

Following upon some bloody May Day riots in Warsaw, during which 62 persons were killed and over 200 wounded, as a result of a procession of revolutionists, and disturbances in other Polish cities, came the announcement of real concessions to the Poles, particularly in the language question, as intimated in these pages last month. On May 16, the Czar issued an imperial rescript modifying the restrictive language decrees in nine of the western governments of Russia, and giving the Poles greater freedom for acquiring farm lands and industrial properties. The rescript gives permission, also, to introduce the Polish and Lithuanian languages in the primary and secondary schools in districts in which the majority of the inhabitants are non-Russian. It directs that the necessary regulations and laws be formulated at once. These measures, it has been announced, will be followed by the introduction of local self-government through the zemstvo system. Thus, at one stroke all the vexatious restrictive laws in Poland and the Baltic provinces have been removed, and the rights for which the non-Russian peoples have been fighting for years are restored. Assuming the good faith and honest coöperation of the public functionaries who will carry out the Emperor's orders in this language question and in the matter of the rescript on religious toleration issued some weeks ago, there is little doubt that many of the most serious political problems in Poland and the Baltic provinces will be largely solved and an era of good feeling result better than has prevailed in Poland for half

a century. As has already been stated several times in these pages, the present disturbances throughout the former Polish kingdom are not political, but economic and social, in character, and the leading Poles realize that the time has not yet come for revolution. They are beginning to believe that their political future is bound up in that of the Russian Empire. At any rate, their attitude in Russia's hour of trial has been correct, and the social disorders have been exclusively the work of agitators, many of whom, it is believed, have been Germans expelled from their own country. In a "Leading Article," this month, is presented an outline of the language question as it is to-day in Poland, with significant Polish and German comment.

Rozhdestvenski vs. Tokio and Paris. "There are three powers at war in the far East," recently observed a British diplomat,—"Russia, Japan, and Admiral Rozhdestvenski." Although uttered in jest, the events of the past month have shown that there is considerable truth in this statement. The Russian naval commander has apparently consulted no interests but his own, and has disregarded orders from St. Petersburg and requests from Paris as calmly as he has ignored threats from Tokio and warnings from London. From the mass of contradictory reports as to dates and places the facts stand out that, despite Russian and French statements to the contrary, the Russian squadron was still close to the French Indo-Chinese coast as late as May 12. During his stay of from ten days to two weeks in the French territorial harbors of Kamranh and Honkohe bays, Admiral Rozhdestvenski had supplied himself bountifully with coal and other necessities. This was in defiance of orders from St. Petersburg, and in spite of all the efforts of the small French territorial squadron under Admiral de Jonquières. On May 8 (or 9), the reinforcing squadron under Admiral Nebogatov joined Rozhdestvenski and was merged in the main fleet. Nebogatov's squadron consisted mostly of old and slow vessels, but their presence materially increased Rozhdestvenski's strength. By May 20, the combined Russian fleet, comprising sixty war vessels and a number of auxiliaries, was reported proceeding northward; but whether intending battle with Admiral Togo or seeking some Siberian harbor (Vladivostok or Petropavlovsk), is not known at this writing. Conflicting reports as to the seaworthy condition of the Russian ships had been coming from the far East. Certain it is that they must have been in need of docking, since they have been in the water constantly for nearly eight months. Rumor

had it that Admiral Rozhdestvenski's health had broken down and that he had asked to be relieved; but this rumor, as well as the report from Paris that Admiral Togo's flagship, the *Mikasa*, had been sunk by a mine, were not confirmed, and both were vigorously denied. In spite of all its misfortunes and delays, and after all has been said about the "benevolent neutrality" of France, the union of these two squadrons in Chinese waters is, to a considerable degree, a vindication of the Russian navy and a satisfactory reply to those who have charged the Russians with utter naval incompetency. The Japanese Government has placed the strictest embargo on naval news, and but little is known of Togo's movements. His tactics and the larger problem of diplomacy before him, however, are outlined (on page 684 of this issue) in an article by a Japanese student of the war who has followed the naval situation closely, basing his statements on authoritative information from Japan.

As to French Neutrality. Serious international complications were threatened by the intense feeling aroused in Japan over what was termed the abuse of France's hospitality by Rozhdestvenski and the culpability of the republic in harboring the Russians and permitting them to refit in her territorial waters. While breaches of neutrality in favor of the Russian Baltic fleet were "tolerable west of Singapore, they cannot [declared one of the semi-official journals of Tokio] be endured for a moment east of that point." Following a good deal of excited discussion in the Japanese press, charging France with violation of neutrality and calling upon England to observe the terms of her alliance with Japan, the Japanese Government made a protest to the French Government, which



THE ANGLO-FRENCH AGREEMENT AND NEUTRALITY IN THE EAST.

JAPAN: "The 'Open Door' is all right, but if he gets through, I can also."

From the *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).



VICE ADMIRAL NEBOGATOV.

was published in full in the *Temps*, of Paris. Eight specific cases, giving causes of complaint against France for violation of neutrality, were cited, comprising the visits of the Russian fleet at Cherbourg and at French colonial ports, ending with the two bays in French Indo-China. The statement concluded with three points:

First.—Without impugning the good faith of France, the Japanese Government thinks that the French instructions were inadequately carried out.

Second.—If satisfaction has been given the Japanese observations after the event, it was a pity that more active watchfulness was not practised before, thereby preventing deeds that Japan considers breaches of neutrality.

Third.—Japan does not ignore the complexity of questions of maritime neutrality or France's predilection for her own particular rules; nevertheless, she considers that the aid assured Admiral Rozhdestvenski owing to slovenly surveillance greatly assisted the accomplishment of his mission and his advent into the Chinese seas.

In brief, the Japanese contention was that the existence of the empire depends upon "invoking the spirit and duty of neutrality against hair-splitting subtleties," and that it is "manifestly for the purpose of war and with hostile intent" that Admiral Rozhdestvenski on so many occasions utilized French waters to anchor and refit, as well as to await reinforcements.

*France's
Statement.*

The next day a semi-official statement of France's reply was published in the same journal. This defense asserted that a nation is bound only by its own proclamations of neutrality, by its treaties with other nations, and by its recognized policy in the past. England and Germany may allow a vessel to stay in one of their ports for only twenty-four hours, or, if it stays longer, may demand that it disarm; but France, it was pointed out, does not recognize, and never has recognized, the twenty-four-hour limit. Considering the distance from home, the fact that the Russians were always outside the three-mile limit, and all other points, the French statement claims that all measures possible were taken to enforce neutrality as understood by the French Government. Moreover, "Japan has done in the Philippines and in the Dutch East Indies the same thing that she accuses Russia of doing in Indo-China." The four conclusions of the French statement follow:

First.—The French neutrality regulations were not established for the present war, but existed previously, without protest from Japan.

Second.—France has not only exercised her sovereignty to fulfill the regulations to the full letter, but has also adopted special measures to maintain absolute impartiality.

Third.—The only direct purchases of coal by the Russians were at Algiers, where the quantity was insignificant. The main stock of coal was purchased in Germany and England without protest.

Fourth.—Any advantages which the Russian second Pacific squadron obtained by anchoring off the French coast were equally open to the Japanese if they had taken the offensive instead of awaiting the Russians.

The French press also pointed out that Admiral Nebogatov had taken refuge in British as well as French waters on his way to the China Sea, and that most of the coal shipped in Indo-China by Rozhdestvenski had been obtained from a reservation and coaling station on ground purchased by Russia before the beginning of the war.

*An "Unsatisfactory
Explanation."*

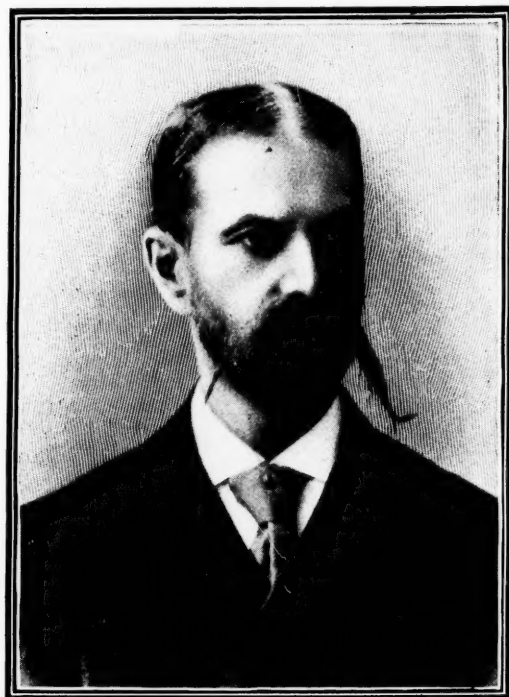
Admitting the force of the French contentions, it is yet hard to see how perfect neutrality has been observed, especially in view of the suppression by the French censor at Saigon of telegraphic dispatches (filed by a correspondent of the *New York Sun*) detailing France's violations of neutrality, and in view of the fact that the reprovisioning of the Russian vessels actually proceeded under the direction of Prince Lieven, captain of the Russian warship *Diana*, interned in Saigon since the naval action of August 10, last. The retention of the message had been defended by the French foreign office on the ground that by a

decision of the International Postal Conference governments have the right to stop, in their respective territories, all telegrams "supposed to be dangerous." The general attitude of the British press, and the request for information by the British premier, elicited a formal statement by the French ambassador at London to the general effect that France has strictly complied with all obligations of neutrality in so far as her naval force in far Eastern waters permitted her to do so. It should be noted, however, that when Admiral de Jonquières backed up his requests by warships *Rozhstvenski* finally heeded them and left French territorial waters

The Land Campaign in the East. While it had been generally believed that the campaign on land would wait on the result of the expected

battle between Admirals Togo and *Rozhstvenski*, a close reading of the official reports issued by the Japanese commanders indicated that by the middle of May Field Marshal Oyama had so disposed his forces that the envelopment of *Vladivostok* had practically begun. This had been borne out by the notice given by the Russian authorities that all foreign agents must

leave the city before June 1. There had been reports of minor actions without decisive result, and on May 18 a reconnoissance in force by Field Marshal Oyama's army actually took place. It was rumored that a large Japanese army, under General Hasegawa, had landed in Korea early in May, and, despite the presence in that country of a considerable Russian raiding force, had marched along the route taken by General Kawamura to meet the main Japanese army and complete the investment of *Vladivostok* from the land side. In a report to the Czar, General Linevitch, the new commander-in-chief, declared that the peril to the army, and its losses, after the battle of Mukden, had been greatly exaggerated. The spirit of the Russian troops, he declared, is strong, and the army is not at all demoralized. General Kuropatkin, in an interview, blamed his subordinate generals for his defeat at Mukden, and declared that in the division of responsibility lies the chief cause of Russian failure. The official report of Russian losses during the series of actions known as the battle of Mukden places the killed and wounded at 1,900 officers and 87,000 men. The Japanese dead, sick, and wounded, from the beginning of the war up to May 1, ex-Premier Okuma recently stated, amount to between 250,000 and 300,000.



THE LATE PAUL LESSAR.

(Russian minister to China, 1901-1905.)

Exit Russia, Enter Japan. The retirement of Count Cassini from the Russian embassy in Washington, and the death of Paul Lessar, Russian minister at Peking, after ten years of Russia's preponderance in China, recall the chapter, now apparently closed, of Russia's brilliant, subtle diplomacy at Peking, now to be succeeded by an era which will some day be described as that of Japanese ascendancy. The armies of the Mikado are at present in such undisputed control of the former Chinese dependencies of Korea and Manchuria that the Tokio government has just perfected plans to replace military control by civil on the continent, a status which was arrived at in Korea some months ago. All reports from Seoul describe the wonderful transformation in the once hermit kingdom by Japanese influence. Railroads are being built, and harbors improved, and, thanks to the substitution of Japanese gendarmerie for the corrupt Korean police, order is maintained in the capital and throughout the surrounding country. Japan now controls all communications between Korea and the outside world, including railroads, posts, telegraphs, and telephones. In this connection we must not forget to say that it was by inadvertence that we announced (in our issue for February) that Prof. Homer B. Hulbert was an

adviser to the Korean Emperor. Professor Hulbert is connected with the English school in Seoul, and is editor of the *Korea Review*, published, in English, in that city.

*Chinese
Commercial
Awakening.*

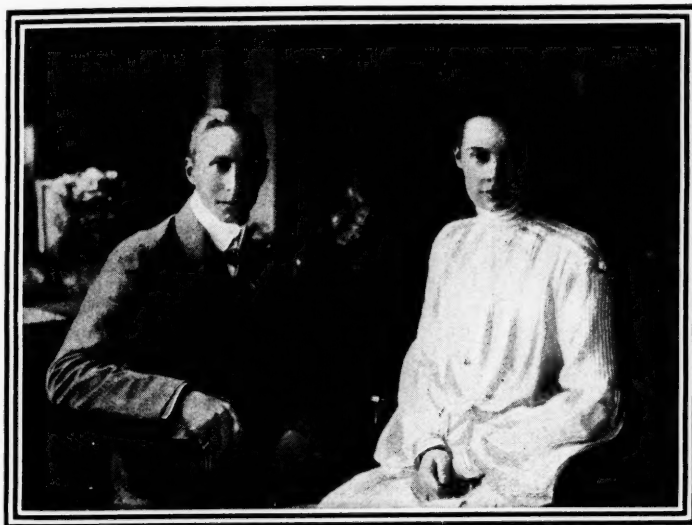
The action of the Chinese Government in directing that Chinese merchants in New York, San Francisco, and other American cities where there are large Chinese colonies enter into commercial associations "for the correction of injustice in international commercial relations" has been followed by the joint announcement of the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce (Chinese, not English), at the head of a list of Chinese commercial bodies, that it will boycott American goods "until the United States concedes some relief in the matter of exclusion." This attitude of the Chinese Government is generally attributed to the influence of Mr. Wu Ting-Fang, formerly Chinese minister at Washington, and is indicative of the awakening of the Chinese ruling classes to the importance of international commerce. Influential Chinamen in this country have already begun a campaign for the modification of our strict exclusion regulations, which, they claim, while perhaps not unfair in their general provisions, have generally been unfairly enforced. Another evidence of Chinese awakening to modern conditions is the recent imperial decree summarizing the new criminal procedure and abolishing the cruel punishment of slicing to death, and the punishment of a family for the fault of an individual. This decree was also in response to a memorial from Mr. Wu. It is evident that the China of 1905 is quite different from the Celestial Empire of a decade and a half ago. The Society for the Diffusion of Christianity and General Knowledge Among the Chinese, in the last annual report of its most excellent work, calls attention to the fact that the Chinese dislike for foreigners, while not so violently expressed as heretofore, is just as strong and deep-seated as ever. The report also points out the tremendous development of commerce and railways, and the part played by missionaries in this development. In March, last, according to a detailed report of Consul-General Ragsdale, at Tientsin, there were in China railroad lines actually constructed with an aggregate capital of more than \$170,000,000. In addition to this, China has already granted railway concessions to France and England which have been capitalized at more than \$51,000,000. The society warns us of the Occident not to be deceived by the general idea that Japanese civilization is better for China than that of Christendom.

*Centenaries
and
Memorials.*

The first half of May saw a number of noteworthy memorial celebrations of international as well as strictly American interest. In Spain, it may be said that the entire nation celebrated with great festivities the tercentenary of Don Quixote. The Schiller centenary was celebrated, not only in Germany, but all over the world, popular assemblies and learned bodies in all civilized countries vying with one another in paying tributes to the great German poet who died one hundred years ago. One of the Schiller societies in Germany has arranged for a complete edition of the poet's works at a price of one mark (twenty-five cents), and the Swiss Government has decided to present every school child in Switzerland (more than two hundred thousand) with a copy of "Wilhelm Tell." German singing societies throughout the United States held festivities in honor of the poet. During the present month (on June 22), all Italy will commemorate the one-hundredth anniversary of Mazzini's birth,—Mazzini, who ranks with Garibaldi and Cavour in the great trio of Italian liberators. In "Leading Articles," this month, estimates of the national significance of both Schiller and Mazzini are given. The unveiling of a monument



PRINCE OSCAR OF SWEDEN AND HIS FIANCÉE,
PRINCESS MARGARET OF CONNAUGHT.



THE CROWN PRINCE OF GERMANY AND HIS FIANCÉE, THE DUCHESS CECILIA OF MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN.

to the memory of Gambetta, at Bordeaux is a tardy recognition of the claims of that great Frenchman upon the gratitude of his countrymen. A series of commemorative exercises of peculiar interest to Americans will take place during the week of July 4, when an American warship brings back from Paris, for interment at Annapolis, the remains of John Paul Jones. Thanks to the untiring zeal of General Porter, the satisfactory identification of the remains of this naval hero had been accomplished, and his remains are to be transferred from a cemetery in Paris to the center of American naval traditions, where a memorial chapel will be erected to mark their final resting-place. The approval of the design for the new McKinley memorial to be built at Canton, Ohio, and the unveiling of the monument, in the Capitol, to the late Frances E. Willard, were also commemorative events of national interest and significance.

Royal Weddings and Engagements.

A marriage of interest and importance to the entire world is that of Frederick William, the crown prince of Germany, to Grand Duchess Cecilia of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, which has been finally set for June 6. The future German emperor is just twenty three years of age, a modest but dignified youth, who has been trained to realize the importance of his position, and who, it is generally admitted, will in every respect be a worthy successor to his father. He is a soldier by inclination, by tradition, and by education, but as yet has shown no evidence of military ambi-

tions. Both he and his wife-to-be are much devoted to outdoor sports. They are said to be healthy, unaffected young people. Both speak English without an accent. Another royal wedding set for June, in London, is that of Prince Oscar Gustav Adolph, son of the acting king, Gustav, of Sweden-Norway, and heir-apparent to the throne, to Margaret, Princess of Connaught, niece of King Edward of England. The persistently reported betrothal of King Alfonso of Spain to Victoria Patricia, Princess of Connaught, sister of Margaret, is another event of world-interest. King Alfonso is planning to visit England during the summer.

The Ocean Yacht Race.

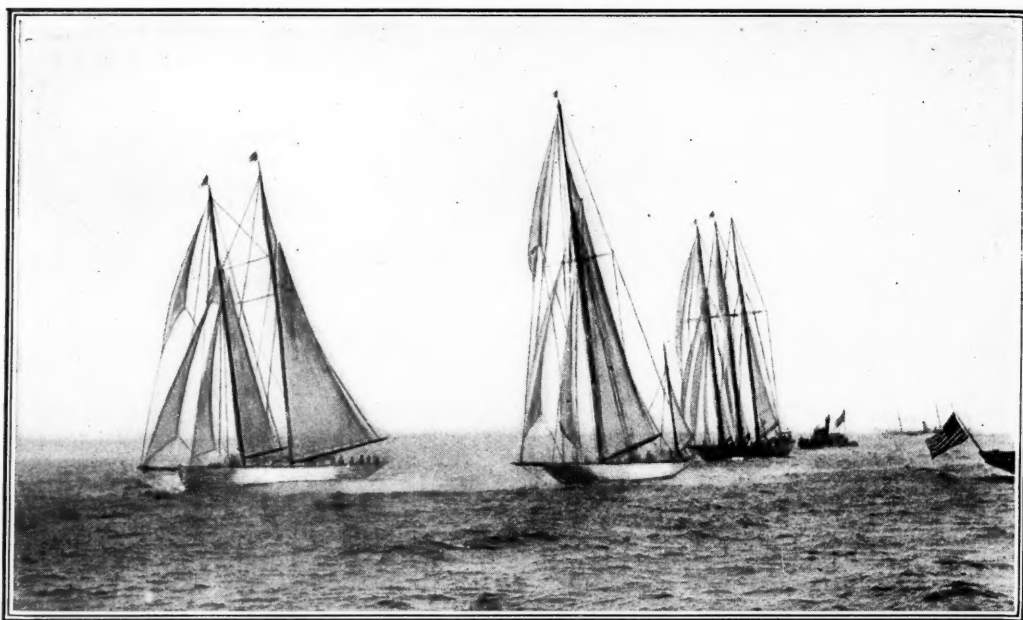
The great race across the Atlantic for the Emperor William's cup is a pleasant and reassuring innovation in yachting contests. It shows a wholesale stripping off of the complex rules, regulations, and allowances that made the *America's* cup races something of a puzzle to the average citizen. There were eleven yachts, real seagoing vessels, of all sizes, from the little *Fleur-de-Lys*, of 86 tons, to the Earl of Crawford's full-rigged ship of a yacht, the *Valhalla*, of 647 tons. The eleven



PRINCESS VICTORIA.

KING ALFONSO.

(Their engagement is reported in some English and Spanish journals.)



Photograph by Brown Brothers, New York.

THE START OF THE TRANSATLANTIC YACHT RACE, FOR THE KAISER'S CUP, FROM SANDY HOOK.

(The *Ailsa* in the lead, followed by the *Hildegard* and the *Atlantic*.)

gallant vessels started from Sandy Hook at noon of May 17, and are finishing as best they may about the time this issue reaches our readers. The first vessel to reach England wins. The boats are owned by Americans, Scotchmen, Englishmen, and Germans, and are manned chiefly by the Scandinavians, who make up the great majority of most yachting crews. An exception is the *Fleur-de-Lys*, which is sailed exclusively by a crew of "Down East" Yankee salts. Some of the vessels have engines and propellers as well as sails, but the engines are, of course, not to be used on the race. The best previous performance of a sailing yacht on the eastward Atlantic voyage was the *Endymion's* cruise, four years ago, in something less than fourteen days, but it is expected that this record will cease to be a record when the Kaiser's cup is won. The *Endymion*, a beautiful two-masted schooner, is one of the contestants in the present race, with her owner, Mr. George Lauder, Jr., aboard. The ocean-crossing yacht race is, of course, inferior as a spectacle and general junket to the short races along shore we are accustomed to. But the new style of yacht race impresses the American citizen as more like the "real thing." Should such long deep-sea cruising races become the fashion, it will lead to the building of much larger and stancher yachts, perhaps of a thousand tons or

more, and it should give the designers more of seaworthy qualities and utilitarian "lines" to puzzle over than they considered in the half day sprints near land in the *America's* cup races.

Internationalism in Sports.

The International Olympic Committee has called a congress to convene at Brussels in this month of June, 1905, to consider various questions related to the management of the Olympic games, which have now become an established feature in international sport. This congress was to have been held in 1903, but was postponed two years in order that it might take advantage of the experience gained in the Olympic games to take place at St. Louis in 1904. It is understood that the international committee will have several changes to propose in the rules and regulations which govern these Olympic sports. Two of these congresses have already been held,—one at Paris, in 1894, and the second at Havre, in 1897. The topics to be considered at the coming Brussels congress will include physical culture at the primary school, at the secondary school, in the university life, in the country, in the cities, in hospitals and reformatories, in the army, in colonial life, and special physical training for women. Invitations have been sent to foreign governments by the international committee through

the Belgian legations. Each university is privileged to send five delegates to the congress, and each secondary or special school two delegates. Athletic associations and automobile and yacht clubs having a national character are also entitled to send five delegates each. On this occasion three of the famous Olympic diplomas will be awarded,—the first to President Roosevelt, the



BARON PIERRE DE COUBERTIN.

second to Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, the Norwegian arctic explorer, and the third to Mr. Santos Dumont, the Brazilian aeronaut. The next series of Olympic games will be held at Rome, in 1908. An important addition to the programme at that time will be a series of artistic contests, at which prizes will be given for the best work in painting, sculpture, architecture, literature, and music, the only condition being that the work shall treat of some athletic subject or get inspiration from some kind of sport. This expansion of the Olympic programme is a suggestion of Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the indefatigable organizer and promoter of the whole Olympic movement.

Last month we briefly noted in these pages some of Mr. Andrew Carnegie's recent benefactions to American colleges, but before the May number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS had reached our readers announce-

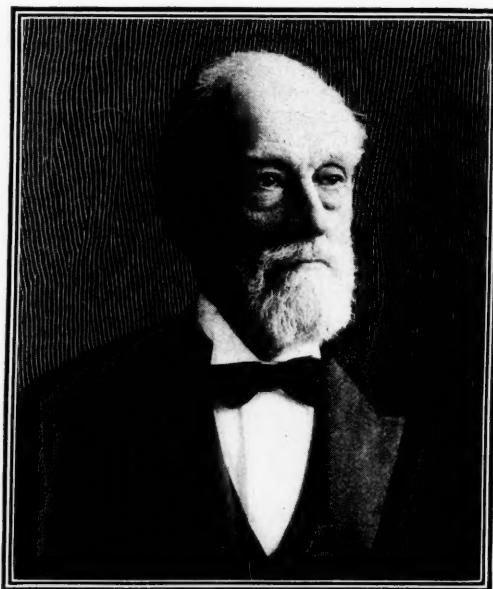
ment was made of a new gift from Mr. Carnegie to the cause of American education which revealed the donor's wisdom, as well as his generosity, in a wholly new light. This is nothing less than the creation of a trust fund the income of which is to be used to pension those college professors in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland who, through old age or other disability, have become incapable of rendering efficient service. The amount set aside for this purpose is \$10,000,000, invested in 5 per cent. first-mortgage bonds of the United States Steel Corporation, the actual market value of these securities at the present time being \$11,500,000. The board of trustees chosen by Mr. Carnegie is made up chiefly of college professors. These trustees are to hold office for five years and to be eligible for reelection, one-fifth retiring each year. Each institution participating in the fund will be permitted to cast one vote for trustees. Technical schools are included with universities and colleges among the institutions to be benefited, and no distinction of sex, creed, or color is to be regarded. State institutions are excluded, and so, too, are sectarian colleges which require a majority of their trustees, officers, faculty, or students to belong to any specified sect, or which impose any theological test. Excluding the two classes of institutions named, it has been found that 93 colleges and technical schools will benefit by the fund. There are 3,900 professors in the faculties of these schools, whose salaries aggregate \$7,720,000. The aim will be to make each professor's annuity the equivalent of half-pay.

*Its
Real
Significance.* This pension scheme has been hailed by college officers throughout the country not only as a most wise and useful contribution to the well-being of a class of men who fully merit the kindest treatment in their declining years, but as a promising solvent of one of the most troublesome problems in university and college administration. In most of our colleges, large and small, there have been repeated instances of professors kept on duty long after their period of real usefulness was past, simply because there was no means provided by which they could have a living after they ceased to receive their professional salaries. Not only did the old system tend to impair in this way the efficiency of our university and college instruction, but it tended at the same time to deter young men of real ability from seeking academic positions, since it was known that professors' salaries in this country are now so meager that it is practically impossible for a man of family to lay up anything for

a rainy day, and all men hesitate to face an old age of certain penury. Thus, the consequences of Mr. Carnegie's generous gift will be far-reaching, and liberal and technical education in this country may be more profoundly affected by it than by any single educational endowment that has ever been made.

*A Great
School
of Art.*

The plans for coöperation between Columbia University and the National Academy of Design, which have been under consideration for several years, seem likely to result in the creation of a great school of fine arts in New York City. The university agrees to establish a faculty and to maintain instruction in architecture, music, painting, and sculpture. It will also provide a site for a building, and will assist the academy in raising the \$500,000 required for the erection of such a structure. These plans, which were originally suggested by President Butler, of Columbia, also contemplate a close association with the Metropolitan Museum of Art. This important project, which is now well advanced toward realization, will mean a great deal to the future of American art. Taken in connection with the development of the American Academy in Rome,

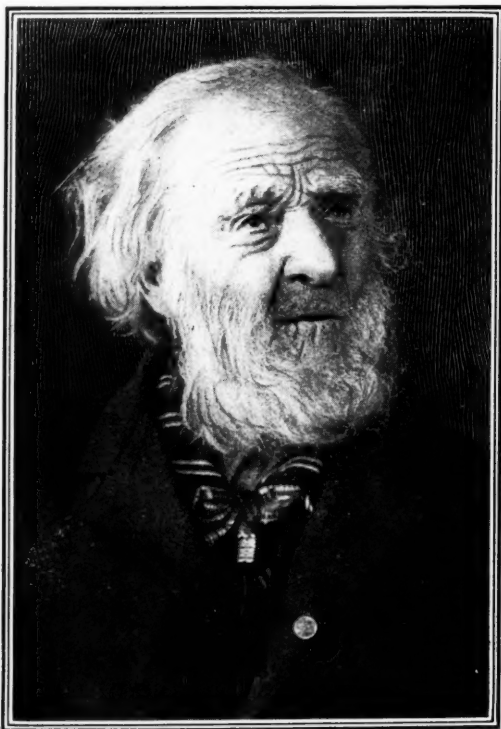


THE LATE SENATOR O. H. PLATT, OF CONNECTICUT.

described by Mr. F. D. Millet in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, it indicates a quickening of American interest in the artistic life.

*Obituary
Notes.*

Senator Orville H. Platt, of Connecticut, whose death occurred only a few weeks after that of his colleague, Senator Hawley, represented a singularly useful type of public man. He had been for twenty-six years a member of the Senate, holding during all of that period important committee positions, and exercising an influence in the shaping of legislation such as few of his fellow-Senators pretended to wield. Yet to the country at large, outside of Washington, his name, prior to the discussion and adoption of the famous "Platt Amendment," defining our relations with Cuba, was comparatively unfamiliar. Hiram Cronk, who died last month in New York State and was accorded the honor of a public funeral by the city of New York, had actually lived in three centuries, having attained the age of one hundred and five years. As a lad of fourteen he had taken part in our second war with Great Britain, and he is believed to have been the last survivor of that conflict. Almost the whole history of our national government is embraced within the span of this single human life. Among the eminent Americans whose deaths have been recently chronicled are Gen. Fitzhugh Lee and Joseph Jefferson, the veteran actor.



THE LATE HIRAM CRONK, THE CENTENARIAN.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From April 21 to May 20, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

April 21.—The gas investigating committee of the New York Legislature completes the taking of testimony at New York City....Secretary Hitchcock dismisses eight employees in the Indian warehouse in New York City on charges of irregularity in office.

April 25.—Attorney-General Moody sustains the Secretary of the Interior in his rebate agreements with certain railroads....Secretary Taft outlines the policy under which the Panama Railroad will be operated.

May 1.—The Judiciary Committee of the New York State Assembly unanimously recommends the removal from office of Justice Warren B. Hooker.

May 2.—In the Baltimore city election the Democrats gain control of both branches of the city legislature....Governor La Follette, of Wisconsin, signs the "anti-graft" bill....The Interstate Commerce Commission files a statement of complaints against common carriers....Mayor Weaver, of Philadelphia, declares his opposition to the proposed lease of the city gas works for seventy-five years for the sum of \$25,000,000 (see page 705).

May 5.—President Roosevelt hurries the investigation of the tobacco trust by the federal grand jury in the New York district.

May 9.—Representative Frank B. Brandegee (Rep.) is elected by the Connecticut Legislature to succeed United States Senator O. H. Platt, deceased.

May 10.—President Roosevelt tells representatives of the Chicago strikers that he heartily approves of Mayor Dunne's efforts to preserve law and order.

May 11.—Governor Cummins, of Iowa, testifies in favor of railroad-rate legislation before the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce.

May 12.—President Roosevelt presides at a cabinet meeting in Washington.

May 15.—The executive committee of the Panama Canal Commission decides to buy materials for canal construction in the cheapest market, not restricting purchases to goods made in the United States....The Citizens' Union of New York City names a committee on nominations for city offices to confer with other political organizations.

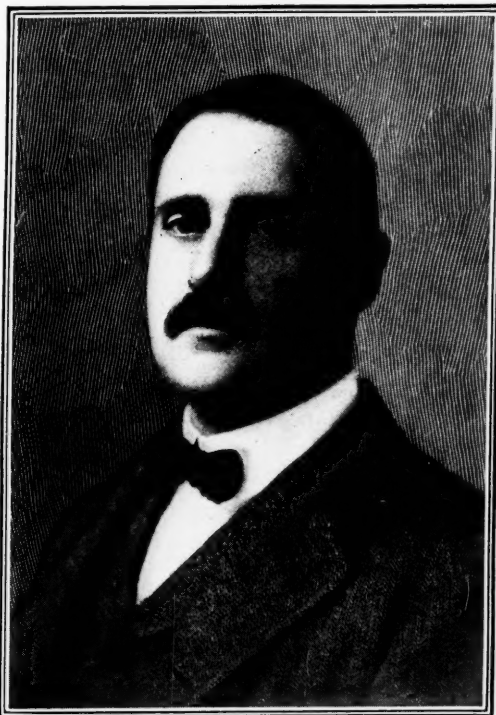
May 18.—The passage of the seventy-five-year gas lease by the Philadelphia councils is followed by rioting in the council chamber.

May 19.—It is announced that Secretary Morton will leave the cabinet on July 1.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

April 21.—M. Delcassé, the French minister of foreign affairs, resigns office....The Italian Government promises reforms in railroad management, and the strikers are ordered to resume work.

April 22.—In consequence of an appeal from President Loubet and an assurance by M. Rouvier, M. Delcassé withdraws his resignation....The Italian Government grants concessions to the railroad strikers.



SENATOR-ELECT FRANK B. BRANDEGEE, OF CONNECTICUT.

(Successor to the late Senator O. H. Platt.)

April 25.—An insurrection in Arabia menaces the authority of the Sultan as head of the Mohammedans....The draft of a new constitution for the Transvaal is published in London....The Czar of Russia again promises the convening of a popular assembly.

April 27.—General Kolzoff is appointed governor-general of Moscow.

April 28.—Mr. Gerald Balfour, as president of the British Local Government Board, addresses an order to the Guardians of the Poor relating to underfed children in the schools.

April 29.—The Czar of Russia makes a decree granting religious freedom.

May 1.—One hundred persons are shot by the troops in Warsaw, and a number are killed or wounded at Lodz.

May 2.—The British House of Commons debates a bill for the restriction of immigration.

May 3.—Lord Dunraven issues a pamphlet declaring that Ireland cannot be Anglicized and urging measures of 'self-government....Representatives of the provincial zemstvos gather in Moscow for the general zemstvo congress called for May 5, despite police prohibition.

May 4.—In Warsaw, the Socialists enforce the obser-

vance of their programme for a day of mourning for the victims of the May Day riots.

May 5.—Moscow's zemstvo congress holds a session Premier Balfour, of England, opposes Lord Dunraven's Irish scheme as tending to disrupt the United Kingdom.

May 6.—Polish Socialists order strikers to resume work pending a call to overthrow the government.... A conspiracy against the Brazilian Government is disclosed by an arrest in Madrid, Spain.

May 7.—Ex-Premier Combes, of France, issues a statement explaining his policy for the separation of Church and State in France.

May 16.—The governor-general of the province of Ufa, Russia, is shot and fatally wounded; the assassin makes his escape.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

April 21.—M. Rouvier states, in the French Chamber of Deputies, that repeated orders have been given to French agents in Indo-China to observe strict neutrality toward Russia and Japan.... The Cretan Assembly proclaims the union of Crete with Greece; the Deputies swear allegiance to the Hellenic constitution.

April 22.—Greece and the great powers of Europe refuse to recognize the Cretan proclamation.

April 26.—It is announced that negotiations for an immigration treaty between the United States and China have been abandoned.... Germany expresses a willingness to open negotiations with the United States for a new commercial treaty on a reciprocity basis.

April 28.—It is announced at Washington that Minister Bowen will be recalled from Venezuela to explain certain charges preferred by him against Assistant Secretary of State Loomis, and that he will be succeeded at Carácas by William W. Russell, now United States minister to Colombia.

April 29.—The German envoy at Tangier makes an unconciliatory statement on Germany's attitude toward Morocco.

April 30.—An interview of the Italian and Austro-Hungarian premiers at Vienna is regarded as strengthening the triple alliance.

May 1.—At Japan's request, the United States represents to China the danger of a breach of neutrality by the presence of Russian warships in Chinese harbors.

May 2.—Ambassador McCormick is cordially received by President Loubet, of France.... The French admiral de Jonquières sails from Saigon, presumably to maintain French neutrality on the Indo-Chinese coast.

May 6.—China opposes the Japanese plan to open Manchuria after peace.

May 10.—It is announced that Count Cassini, the Russian ambassador to the United States, will be transferred to Spain, and that Baron Rosen will succeed him at Washington.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

April 21.—The Russian cruiser *Diana*, which took refuge at Saigon some time ago, is ordered to disarm.

April 22.—In consequence of direct orders from the Czar, and pressing representations of the French authorities of Indo-China, Admiral Rozhdestvenski leaves



STATUE OF PRESIDENT M'KINLEY BY H. A. MACNEIL.
(Recently completed for the Ohio State Capitol, at Columbus.)

Kamranh Bay with the Baltic fleet and proceeds northward.... The French authorities at Saigon prevent the Russian vessels there from shipping more coal than is necessary for their voyage.

April 23.—The Russians advance south to Chang-tu and Kai-yuan, but are defeated by the Japanese, and retreat north again.

April 24.—The Russian squadron is seen fifteen miles from the Annam coast, going north.

April 27.—The Russian fleet returns to Kamranh Bay, German colliers supplying coal inside the bay.

April 28.—The Russian fleet again leaves Kamranh Bay.

May 4.—Nebogatov's Russians quadron passes through the Straits of Malacca and is headed north to the China Sea.

May 6.—Four Russian destroyers make a raid from Vladivostok and burn a Japanese sailing vessel off Hokkaido, Japan.

May 8.—It is announced from St. Petersburg that the squadrons of Rozhestvenski and Nebogatov have united off Saigon.

May 15.—Skirmishing continues on the Russian left in Manchuria.

May 18.—Manchurian roads are reported impassable, thereby delaying further hostile action for the present.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

April 22.—John W. Gates' deal in May wheat on the Chicago Board of Trade collapses, the price closing at one dollar amid much excitement.

April 24.—Frank G. Bigelow, president of the First National Bank of Wisconsin, confesses to the embezzlement of \$1,450,000....Equitable policy-holders in five States apply to the courts for the appointment of a receiver....A three weeks' Shakespearean commemoration begins at Stratford-on-Avon.

April 25.—The quarterly report of the United States Steel Corporation shows great expansion in the steel trade.

April 26.—The eighth annual conference for education in the South opens at Columbia, S. C....More than one thousand English emigrants gathered by the Salvation Army leave Liverpool to colonize in Canada.

April 27.—Andrew Carnegie gives \$10,000,000 for a college professors' pension fund in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland.

April 29.—A tornado causes 100 deaths at Laredo, Texas....Switzerland and part of France are visited by earthquakes.

May 2.—A strike of Chicago teamsters in sympathy with one of the unions of garment workers reaches serious proportions; there is continual rioting in the streets.

May 3.—The International Railway Congress opens in Washington, D. C.

May 7.—Twelve thousand immigrants, chiefly Italians, arrive at the port of New York on ten liners....The centenary of the death of Schiller is observed in Germany and Austria.

May 10.—Plans for the erection of a school of fine arts, through the coöperation of the National Academy of Design, at Columbia University are adopted at a meeting of the academy.

May 11.—Twenty persons are killed and more than 100 injured by the wreck of an express train on the Pennsylvania Railroad near Harrisburg, Pa....A tornado causes nearly 100 deaths at Snyder, Oklahoma.

May 17.—At the general convention of Baptists, held at St. Louis, the constitution of a permanent convention of Northern and Southern Baptists is adopted.

May 18.—The Presbyterian General Assembly elects Dr. James D. Moffatt moderator.

OBITUARY.

April 21.—United States Senator Orville H. Platt, of Connecticut, 77....Bishop Alfred A. Watson, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, East Carolina Diocese, 86....Hedwig Niemann Raabe, a noted German actress, 60.

April 23.—Joseph Jefferson, the American actor, 76 (see page 674)....President Henry H. Goodell, of the Massachusetts Agricultural College, 66....Brig.-Gen. Charles Smart, U.S.A. (retired), soldier, physician, and author, 63.

April 24.—Gédéon Ouimet, ex-premier of Quebec, 82.

April 25.—Col. Willard Glazier, author, soldier, and explorer, 64.

April 27.—Ex-Gov. Alvin Hawkins, of Tennessee, 83.

April 28.—Brig.-Gen. Fitzhugh Lee, U.S.A. (retired), 69 (see page 673).

April 29.—Lord Grimthorpe, a leading authority on ecclesiastical law and architecture, 89.

April 30.—Ex-Congressman J. Howard Pugh, of New Jersey, 78.

May 1.—Commodore Somerville Nicholson, U.S.N. (retired), 83....Alden B. Stockwell, once a leading American financier, 72.

May 3.—James Sutherland, minister of public works in the Dominion of Canada, 56....Mrs. Betsy Bishop Blackman, of Connecticut, believed to be the last survivor of the Sandemanians, 95.

May 4.—Ex-Congressman Milton I. Southard, of Ohio.

May 7.—Rev. Charles H. Taintor, D.D., Western secretary of the Congregational Church Building Society, 56.

May 8.—Dr. Heber M. Hoople, author of standard works on the eye and ear, 49....Flavius J. Fisher, a well-known American portrait painter, 73.

May 10.—Sir Bernhard Samuelson, a leading English engineer and author, 84....Frederick J. DePeyster, the New York lawyer, 66.

May 12.—Emerson E. Bennett, a well-known writer and composer, 83....Maj. E. D. T. Myers, president of the Richmond, Fredericksburg & Potomac Railroad, 75.

May 13.—Hiram Cronk, the only pensioner of the War of 1812, 105.

May 14.—Jessie Bartlett Davis, the opera singer, 46.

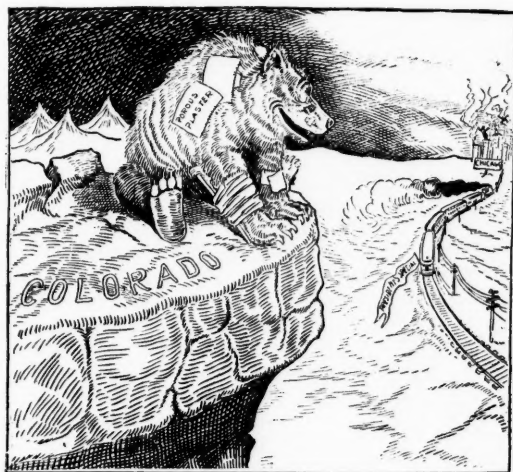
May 15.—Ex-Gov. Thomas J. Churchill, of Arkansas, 81....Walter Neef, European manager of the Associated Press, 48....Daniel Henry Chase, oldest graduate of the Wesleyan University, 90....Thomas Brigham Bishop, a well-known composer of popular songs, 70.

May 17.—Edward Warren Toole, a leading Montana lawyer, 66....Dr. Frederick W. Speirs, editor of the *Booklovers Magazine*, Philadelphia, 37.

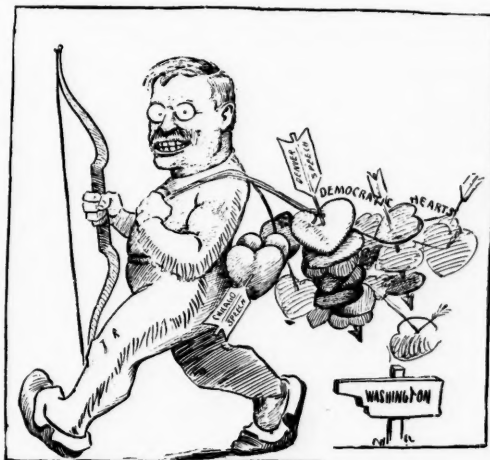
May 18.—Mrs. Jacob A. Rills, 53.



SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



SPEED THE PARTING GUEST.
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



THE MIGHTY NIMROD IN A NEW RÔLE.
From the *World-Herald* (Omaha).



"THE WINNING OF THE WEST."
(Apropos of the reception tendered to President Roosevelt
by the leading Democratic club of Chicago.)
From the *World* (New York).



THE BEARS: "We're glad he's gone."
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

THE CARTOONISTS WELCOME THE PRESIDENT RETURNING FROM HIS WESTERN HUNT.



SQUASHED!

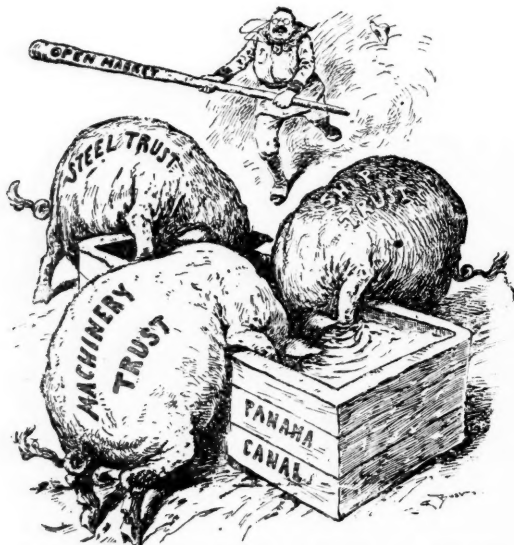
From the World-Herald (Omaha).

The administration's attitude on the subjects of Panama freight rates and the purchase of Panama supplies, respectively, is portrayed in the two cartoons in this column.



HE NEEDS MORE CLOTHES, CORPORATION ATTORNEYS TO THE CONTRARY NOTWITHSTANDING.

From the World-Herald (Omaha).



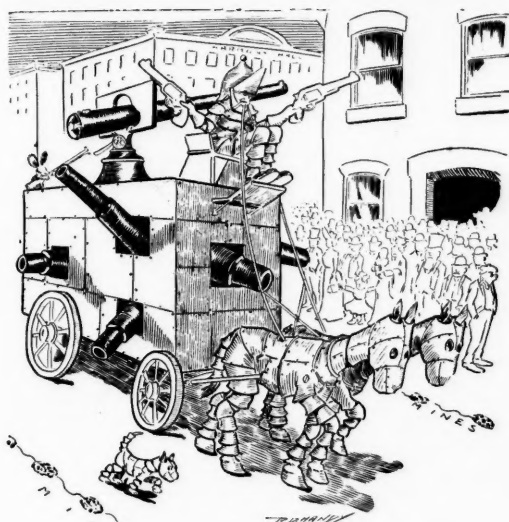
The President is determined that "the hogs shall take their feet out of the trough."—News item, New York Tribune.

From the World (New York).



THE FIGHT OF HIS LIFE.

From the Brooklyn Daily Eagle (New York).



TEAMING IN CHICAGO.—From *News Tribune* (Duluth).



CROWDING.—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



RUSSIA TRYING TO CATCH UP TO THE REST OF THE WORLD.
From the *Evening News* (Detroit).

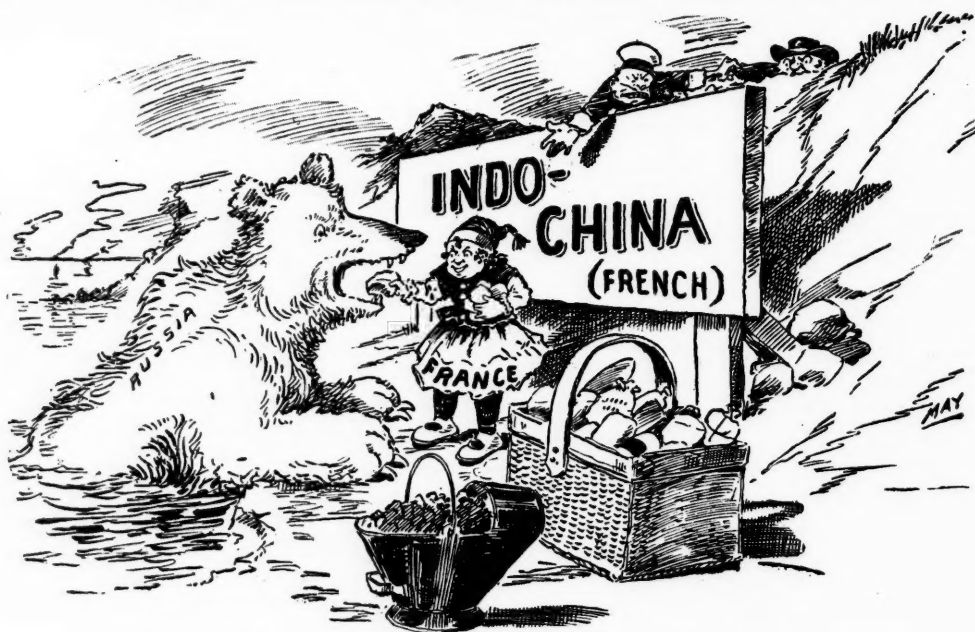


BITING OFF MORE THAN HE CAN CHEW.
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

The above cartoon is one of many that have appeared during the past few weeks in the Philadelphia newspapers in the campaign against the "organization's" passage of the famous "gas lease" measures, which are described by Mr. Rogers in another part of this REVIEW.



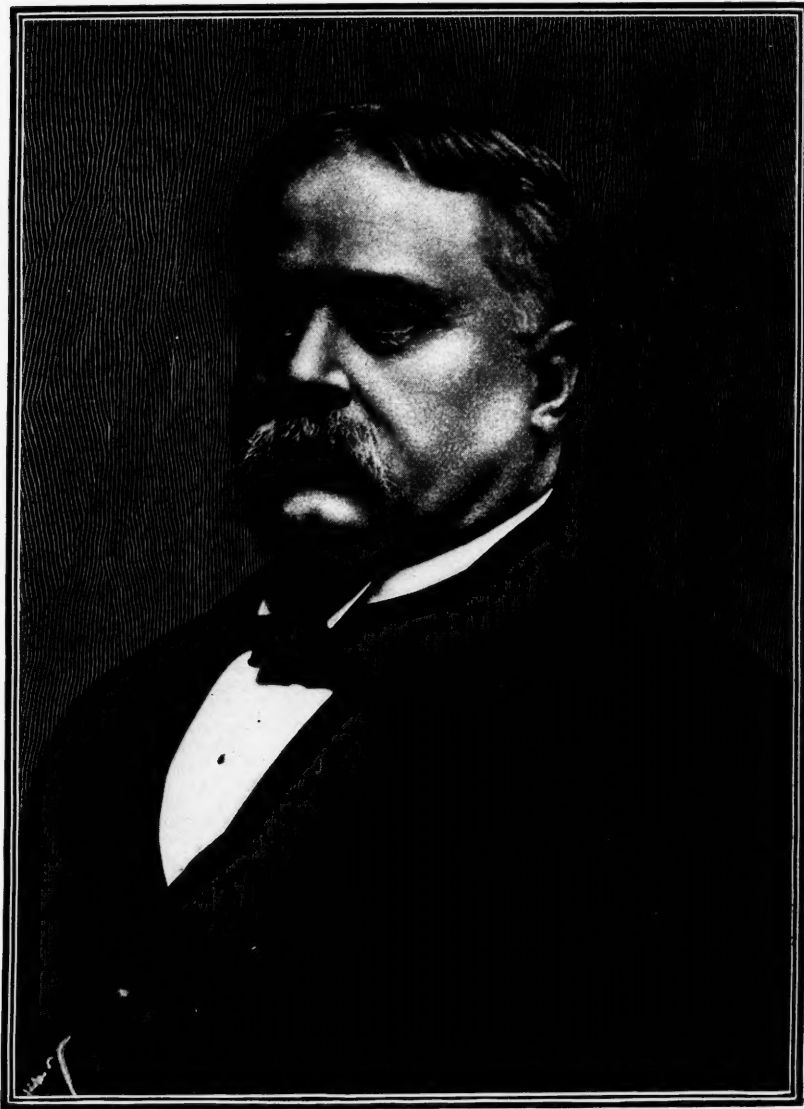
EMPEROR WILLIAM (to Europe): "Russia having failed, it may devolve upon Germany to resist his aggressions."
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



JAPAN: "Is that neutrality, or a boarding-house?"—From the *Journal* (Detroit).



THE JAPANESE BARBER: "Now, sir, I'll trim you up."—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)



GENERAL FITZHUGH LEE.

A nephew of Robert E. Lee, the Confederacy's great military chieftain and hero, General "Fitz," as he was called in Virginia, began and ended his soldiering under the Stars and Stripes. A West Point graduate, he had his share of Indian fighting in the West before the Civil War broke out. In 1861, young Lee "went with his State," and Virginia had no more loyal defender of her liberties. He quickly rose from captain to brigadier-general in the Virginia cavalry, displaying skill as well as courage. In the summer of 1863 he became a major-general, and just before Appomattox he was placed in command of the entire cavalry corps of the Army of Northern Virginia. Fitzhugh Lee, like his Uncle Robert, accepted the results of the war and did what he could to restore good feeling between North and South. He was elected Governor of Virginia in 1885. In 1896, President Cleveland appointed him consul-general at Havana. President McKinley retained him in that position until the outbreak of the Spanish-American War necessitated his recall. During the war he was made a major-general of volunteers, and after peace was declared he became military governor of Havana, and later served as commander of the Department of Missouri. At the time of his sudden death, on April 28, 1905, he was a retired brigadier-general of the United States army.

THE CAREER OF JOSEPH JEFFERSON.

BY JOSEPH B. GILDER.

WHEN Joseph Jefferson died at West Palm Beach, Fla., on April 23 (the anniversary of Shakespeare's death), many were surprised to learn that he was only seventy-six years old. For years his identity had been more or less confused in the popular mind with that of an old man, and one who looked a great deal older than his years warranted. Hundreds of thousands of playgoers thought of him only as a decrepit old fellow with snow-white hair and a beard that *King Lear* might have envied. Even when he was less than seventy, one sometimes heard it argued that he must be eighty at least; and nothing but a reference book would silence the contention.

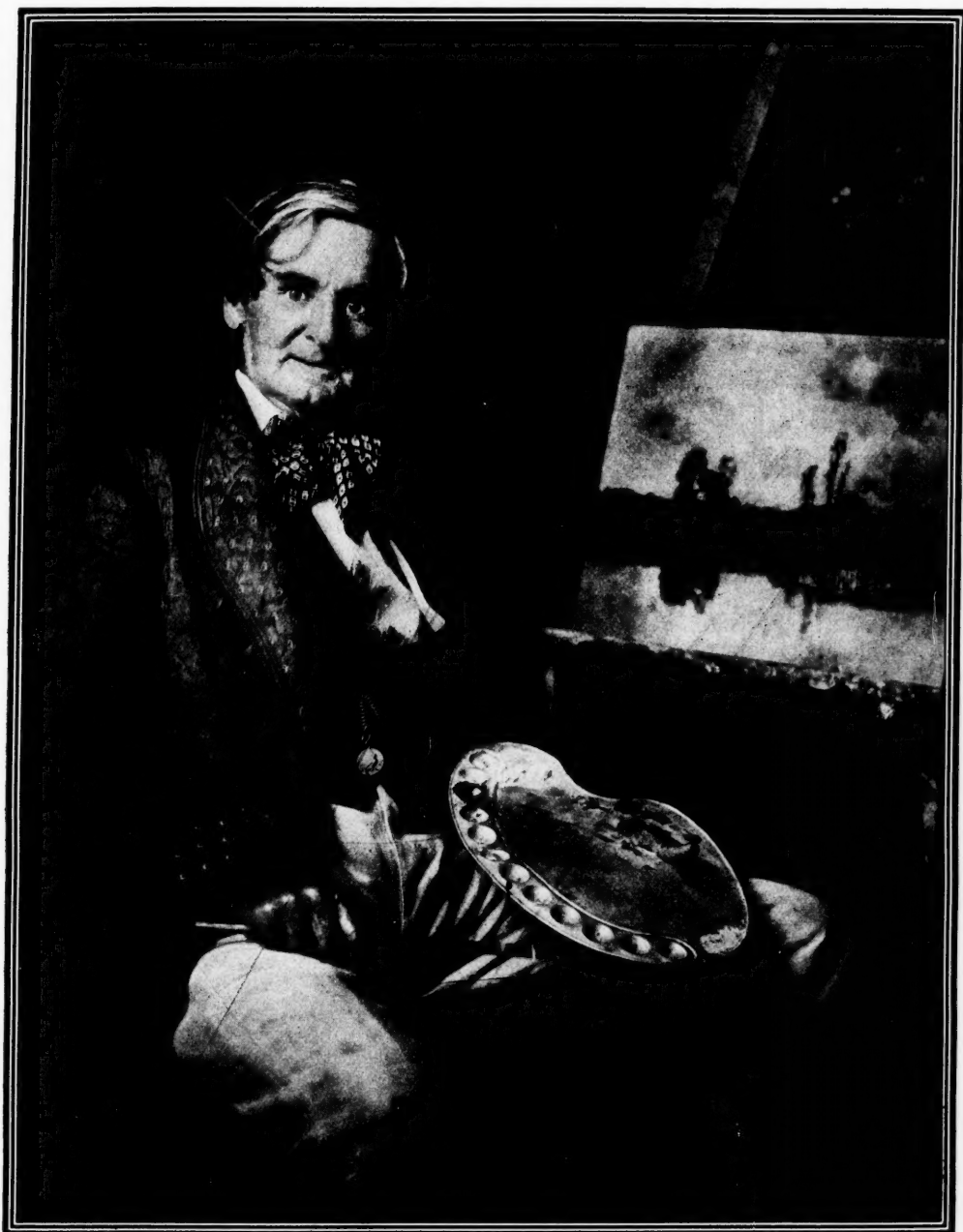
As he was fond of pointing out in those little speeches before the curtain that became a feature of his later performances, the actor's fame, which is apt to be evanescent, was less so in his case than in that of most of his fellow-players. For children had come in troops to see his impersonation of *Rip Van Winkle* while yet it was a novelty; their grandchildren were coming now (his *matinée* audiences consisted chiefly of children); and as his first appearance in the part had been made over forty years before, and as many of those who saw it last would presumably live to be as old as himself, he might fairly hope to be before the public, as a living presence or a cherished memory, for considerably more than a century. Nearly a hundred and fifty years would intervene between his first appearance on the stage and the death of the last of his auditors who should attain to his own measure of longevity.

The year in which Jefferson was born (1829) was not especially noteworthy, but the month (February) was already illustrious as the natal month of Washington, Lincoln, Darwin, Tennyson, Mendelssohn, Dickens, Ruskin, Lowell, Sir Henry Irving, and a host of lesser lights. "I can almost say I was born in the theater," is the first word of his autobiography; for while his birth actually occurred in a house in Philadelphia, his earliest recollections were connected with the theater in Washington of which his father was the manager. At first he played behind the scenes in the daytime, but at the age of three he appeared as a "living statue;" and only a year later, being caught by T. D. Rice in an imitation of his own dancing "Jim Crow," he

was literally bagged by that pioneer "knight of the burnt cork" and dumped down before the footlights to "jump Jim Crow" in a costume exactly reproducing that of his captor.

The family sojourned for a while in Baltimore and Philadelphia, not long after this, and then went to New York to live; where, according to "Ireland's Records," the third Joseph Jefferson appeared ere long in the part of a Greek pirate,—a very formidable pirate, aged eight! But the course of empire tends westward, and when the pirate was a year older his family migrated in the same direction. This was in the early days of steam navigation, when the tedious trip from New York to Chicago *via* the raging Erie Canal and the Great Lakes had been cut down to a few weeks only. Of this idyllic hegira Jefferson retained the liveliest and most rose-colored recollection. When he first saw it, Chicago had already entered upon the race for supremacy with New York, having emerged from its chrysalis state as a military outpost and Indian trading village into a bustling town of two thousand inhabitants. From here to Springfield was not a far cry; but when the elder Jefferson and his partner went thither and built a new theater local Puritans secured the passage of legislation, such as the Stratford town council passed in Shakespeare's day, imposing a heavy fine on theatrical entertainments. A rising young lawyer intervened in their behalf, however, and on learning that his name was Abraham Lincoln one is not surprised at the successful issue of his efforts.

The family drifted southward before long, and when Joseph was only thirteen his father died, and the family fortunes were soon at so low an ebb that on one occasion he and his mother and his half-brother, the popular young comedian, Charles Burke, were abandoned several miles from Port Gibson, Miss., by a teamster who refused to trust them for ten dollars till they should reach that town,—a sad descent from the days when Mrs. Jefferson had been "one of the most attractive stars in America, the leading prima donna of the country!" Not long afterward, the war with Mexico broke out, and the Jeffersons joined a troupe of actors that followed the American army into the enemy's country. When the company disbanded in despair at Matamoras,



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THE LATE JOSEPH JEFFERSON.

(In the latter years of his life, even before he had retired from the stage, Mr. Jefferson was an enthusiastic painter.)

one of his fellow-players joined with Jefferson and his mother and sister in opening a refreshment counter in a bar-room and gambling den. This proved an uncongenial atmosphere for a legitimate comedian, and when a stray bullet put the coffee-pot out of action, and a sporting friend of Jefferson's from Philadelphia was knifed before his eyes, he sold out his interest in the refreshment business and started by boat for New Orleans. There the sight of John E. Owens in "A Kiss in the Dark" gave him a pang of jealousy, and fired him with his first great ambition to be a star.

From New Orleans the ambitious youth made his way to Philadelphia, the stage ride across the Alleghanies from Wheeling to Cumberland occupying twenty-four hours, and involving hardships difficult to apprehend in these days of swift and luxurious traveling. In the City of Brotherly Love, Jefferson played nothing, perhaps, less suited to his peculiar abilities than one of the chorus in an English version of the "Antigone." At twenty-two, being already a married man and a father, he was fain to try his luck at theatrical management, on his own account, in the South; then, after another sojourn in Philadelphia, and further experiences as a manager in Baltimore and Richmond, followed by a prolonged holiday trip to England and France (the country from which his mother's parents had come), he settled in New York again, where Laura Keane made him the leading comedian of her new theater, and where his reappearance was made as *Dr. Pangloss* in "The Heir at Law." In this rôle, which he had first essayed under the stage management of John Gilbert, at the Chestnut Street Theater, Philadelphia, his success was immediate; and it was one of those in which he was oftenest seen thereafter. At the same theater, he was observed, a year later, by Washington Irving, then nearing the end of his long life; and the author of the "Sketch-Book" was struck by the player's resemblance to his father "in look, gesture, size, and make." His accidental discovery of this mention of his name in the "Life and Letters" not long afterward marked a turning-point in his career.

If in this brief notice of his work undue emphasis seems to have been laid upon Jefferson's early life, it should be considered that the record of this period,—usually neglected by his biographers,—throws most interesting side lights on dramatic conditions in America in the earlier years of the last century. Comparatively recent as that period is,—for it must be remembered that Mr. Jefferson was not a very old man when he passed away,—the circumstances in which the

playing fraternity pursued their vocation were as different from present conditions as if a wide gulf of time intervened between the forties and the present year of grace. Barn-storming meant something very different then from what it means to-day: its signification was more nearly literal, and Jefferson actually gave "The Lady of Lyons" and "The Spectre Bridegroom" in a barn in Mississippi. Traveling bands of players wandered about the country, not only in railway trains, but in boats and stages. Smoky lamps oftener than gas jets illumined their performances. It was still the age of stock companies, and of salaries which, even if regularly paid, would scarcely attract a twentieth-century office boy. In no respect has the change been more marked than in the improved social position of the actor of to-day.

The picture painted by Jefferson of the really primitive conditions that obtained when his career began, and for many years thereafter, is none too highly colored. At almost every point it finds corroboration in the autobiographies of two other veterans of the stage, one still happily with us (Mr. J. H. Stoddart, his senior by sixteen months), the other quite recently passed away (Mrs. G. H. Gilbert, who was born a few years earlier). In reading their recollections of stage life in England, one seems to be hearing of things that happened in the eighteenth rather than the nineteenth century; and the feeling is pretty much the same in following their accounts of the plays, the players, and the playhouses with which they became acquainted on arriving in this country—Mrs. Gilbert in 1849 and Mr. Stoddart five years later. Not only have physical conditions been revolutionized since Mr. Jefferson could be thrilled by the mere receipt of a telegram, but a radical change has been effected even in the organization of dramatic companies. Then, one man in his time played an infinity of parts, ranging sometimes, in a single evening, as in the case of Mr. Stoddart, from *Sir Harcourt Courty*, in "London Assurance," to the comic baker in a pantomime. (This was in England, but the same thing might readily have happened here.)

The star system has superseded the stock as completely, and apparently as irrevocably, as the electric trolley has displaced the horse-car. Jefferson himself was one of the first to organize a "combination" company, the arguments for which he marshals with force and conviction, claiming that his own responsibility for the introduction of the star system must be shared by no less a man than Shakespeare,—not Shakespeare the actor and manager so much as Shakespeare the dramatist, the interest in whose

plays almost always centers in one or two characters.

A still more recent evolution, or devolution, by which the control of the best theaters throughout the country has passed from the individuals, many of them actor-managers, who formerly exercised it, into the hands of a speculative syndicate, is one with which he had little or no sympathy, though he did not feel called upon to oppose it with effective persistency. He was never a fighter, and saw no reason, apparently, for risking his personal fortunes in a struggle against what seemed to be an irresistible, if not a desirable, commercial tendency.

But to return to the story of Jefferson's career. Even in his youth he had seen the advisability of identifying himself with a purely American character, in a play by an American author; and when, some time after his successful impersonation of *Asa Trenchard* in "Our American Cousin,"—a play in which, however, his own performance was gradually eclipsed by that of *Sothern* as *Lord Dundreary*,—he came upon Irving's allusion to himself, it set him thinking along a line that led directly to the "Sketch-Book," and the dramatic possibilities of the story of *Rip Van Winkle's* long sleep. These had been tested, though not thoroughly, by his father and his brother, among others, and Jefferson immediately procured the two or three plays that had been based on Irving's version of the old Harz Mountains legend and constructed a new one for himself. The production of this piece at Washington, where it was favorably received, while convincing him of its merits, at the same time disclosed its defects. After a professional sojourn of several years in Australia and New Zealand while the Civil War raged at home, and a glimpse of South America and Panama, he took the play to England, got *Dion Boucicault* to revise it, and produced it in London with a success that exceeded his fondest expectations. This was just forty years ago; and thenceforth Joe Jefferson and *Rip Van Winkle* were as inseparably connected in men's thoughts as *Chang* and *Eng*, the Siamese twins.

Jefferson's main contribution to the effectiveness of the play, apart from his wonderfully sympathetic presentation of the leading character, was the emphasizing of the ghostly nature of *Hendrik Hudson's* gnome-like crew, with whom he drinks in the mountains before falling asleep. In earlier stage versions of the legend, they had both sung and spoken; in his, they were voiceless, and no little ingenuity was required to devise speeches which they could an-

swer with a nod. The result, it may be noted, is an act unique upon the stage, in that only one of the characters speaks, while the rest converse in dumb show. By this means a distinct line is drawn between the domestic scenes in the play and those in which the poetic and romantic element is dominant. The creation of a character that will live as long as any known in American literature was no less Jefferson's work than Irving's,—though he himself admitted *Boucicault's* liberal contribution to the value of the medium. Had he achieved nothing else, he would have won such immortality as players can; but he demonstrated his ability and versatility by performances of *Bob Acres*, *Caleb Plummer*, and *Dr. Pangloss*,—to name but these three among his various impersonations,—that were second only in brilliancy and popularity to that in which his greatest fame was won. Doubtless he was well advised in repeating, year in and year out, his presentation of a part that at least two generations have known and loved; for it was a flawless work of art, and has given more pleasure to a greater number of people than any other dramatic entertainment for which a single person has been mainly responsible.

On such a point as this it is interesting to have the testimony of a brother actor, and there is a passage in *Mr. Stoddart's* "Recollections of a Player" that should be read by all who think *Mr. Jefferson* owed it to his profession to strike out new paths as a player, so long as he remained upon the boards.

Mr. Jefferson's career, I think, stands apart from all others. . . . In my early association with him, we were both stock actors with *Miss Laura Keene*, and I had every opportunity of seeing him in a great variety of characters, and in all thought him preëminent. His effects were Jeffersonian, and you were left very little in doubt of the actor's identity; but his renditions were all so free from claptrap and so thoroughly artistic that to me, whether in serious matter, legitimate comedy, or farce, he was always delightful. I have frequently heard members of the profession regret that *Mr. Jefferson* confined himself to two or three parts,—in fact, almost to one,—and declare that he should have given the public new material. I do not think so.

"Joe" Jefferson, as he was endearingly called, was a many-sided man. Eminent chiefly as an actor, he was also an accomplished painter and an admirable writer, his autobiography being one of the best things of its kind in the language. A lover of nature and of sport, he was still more a lover of his kind, and his genius and gentleness combined to make him the best-loved American of his day.

MODJESKA, DRAMATIC ARTIST AND PATRIOT.

TO achieve supreme success in one of the most difficult of all arts, in a foreign country whose language had to be acquired after her thirtieth year, is a triumph reserved for but few. One of these few is Madame Helena Modjeska, the Polish actress whose farewell "benefit," given in New York last month, called forth such expressions of praise and esteem from artists and art-lovers the world over.

In reply to the tribute that she was the greatest living actress, Bernhardt is reported to have recently declared that she must share primacy in the dramatic art to-day with Madame Duse and Madame Modjeska. The Polish artiste, who years ago won and has since kept the admiration and affection of her adopted countrymen, is possessed of a rare genius,—a genius that has not shirked work. Her art, characterized as it has ever been by tragic power, purity of aim, grace and delicacy, has placed her in the same class with Rachel and Ristori; but beyond her art is her fine, interesting personality, and the great capacity for work which has enabled her to win the highest triumph in a tongue not her own.

Madame Helena Modjeska, whose maiden name was Opid, was born in the city of Cracow, Austrian Poland, and married at an early age an actor named Modrzejewski, who soon afterward died, leaving her with a baby son. This boy (Ralph) came to the United States with his mother, and is at present a well-known civil engineer in Chicago. Later, Madame Modjeska (by common consent the difficult Polish form of the name has been abandoned for the simpler English form) married her present husband, Charles Chlapowski, a Polish journalist of considerable reputation for patriotism. He is known in this country as Count Bozenta, from his ancestral title.

Madame Modjeska's career has been a varied and active one. Beginning with a "benefit" organized by amateurs for some unfortunate miners in Poland, her progress was steady and sure. Her success at this amateur performance was so great that she decided to adopt the stage as her vocation. At her second amateur performance, a famous Polish actor and dramatic author, appreciating her ability, arranged for her dramatic career, which really began with a tour of her native province of Galicia. Her first great triumph was achieved at the Imperial Theater, in Warsaw, in 1868. The theater organization in

the Polish capital was large, and the artistic force, chiefly recruited from the dramatic schools of the city, were professionally jealous of outsiders. After considerable difficulty, Modjeska was engaged for a series of performances in leading parts. The rest of the organization was violently opposed to her appearance, and determined upon her failure. The newspapers of the city attacked her as a provincial amateur, but as her dramatic ambition was concentrated on the national Polish stage, she determined to risk all in an attempt to win Warsaw. The management chose her to play "Adrienne Lecouvreur," one of the most difficult in the range of any actress. It had been played in Warsaw by Rachel, and the public remembered the magnificent performance of the French actress. Modjeska describes with what fear and trembling she trod the stage that night, but, in spite of the opposition and criticism, she won the battle and rendered a part equal to that of the great Rachel.

Soon after this, her patriotic attitude and the vigorous journalistic writings of her husband gave offense to the Russian and German governments, and they both left Poland for the United States (in 1876). Modjeska's intention was to establish, near Los Angeles, Cal., a Utopian colony in which they and their Polish compatriots in the United States might enjoy the blessings of liberty. Henrik Sienkiewicz, the now famous author of "Quo Vadis" and Polish historical novels, was with Modjeska in this enterprise, and his book "Letters from America" is full of his impressions and experiences of this experiment. The Arcadian idyl was not a success, and, with almost all her resources exhausted, Modjeska conceived the bold idea of going to San Francisco to study English for the American stage. This was in 1877. By diligent study, she so soon mastered the English language that in six months she was able to perform intelligibly before American audiences. It was through the veteran manager, John McCullough, that Modjeska first came upon the California stage.

In 1880, desiring to secure an English indorsement of her American success, Modjeska went to London, and soon achieved triumph at the Court Theater, in the British capital. Two years later, she returned to the United States, where she has since lived. Once every two years she has been accustomed to journey to her native country to play in the theaters of Cracow and Lemberg, Austrian Poland; Posen, German Poland,

and Warsaw, Russian Poland. About twelve years ago, she delivered a speech in Chicago on a Polish political subject, and when, later on, she visited Warsaw the students gave her a great ovation, drawing her carriage through the streets with their own hands. In this the Russian Government saw a dangerous political demonstration, and in consequence forbade Madame Modjeska to appear in public anywhere in the empire, particularly in the Polish provinces. Later on, Madame Modjeska was also debarred from performing in Germany.

Modjeska's method of studying for a character is her own, and is extremely interesting from a psychological standpoint. She has a remarkable power of self-concentration. While studying a character she is to represent on the stage, she literally places herself in the situation created by the author. She lives in the same conditions, and is unable to think of anything else during her studies. While she is studying a Shakespearean rôle, even when interrupted by the demands of her everyday life, she acts and talks in the manner and language of the character she has been studying. Although her repertoire is a varied and extensive one, the rôles in which she is best known among Americans are those of *Mary Stuart*; *Catharine*, in "Henry VIII.," and *Lady Macbeth*.

At the "benefit" given her in New York last month, some of the most eminent dramatic and musical artists of the world appeared. An address was made by Richard Watson Gilder, in which he said: "In you the art of acting in our day has rejoiced in one of its loftiest exponents. Shakespeare has found in you an interpreter worthy of his most exquisite and thrilling imaginations."

Madame Modjeska lives on a fine country es-



MADAME HELENA MODJESKA AS SHE IS TO-DAY.

tate known as Arden, in Orange County, California, near Los Angeles, with Mexican rough riders and cowboys for her neighbors. There she enjoys complete freedom and quietude, and, in the midst of her great library, she is preparing her autobiography. Her husband is deeply interested in agricultural matters, and is a successful farmer according to the most exacting American standards. They are both great admirers of American ideals and the American people.

COUNT CASSINI, TYPICAL RUSSIAN DIPLOMAT.

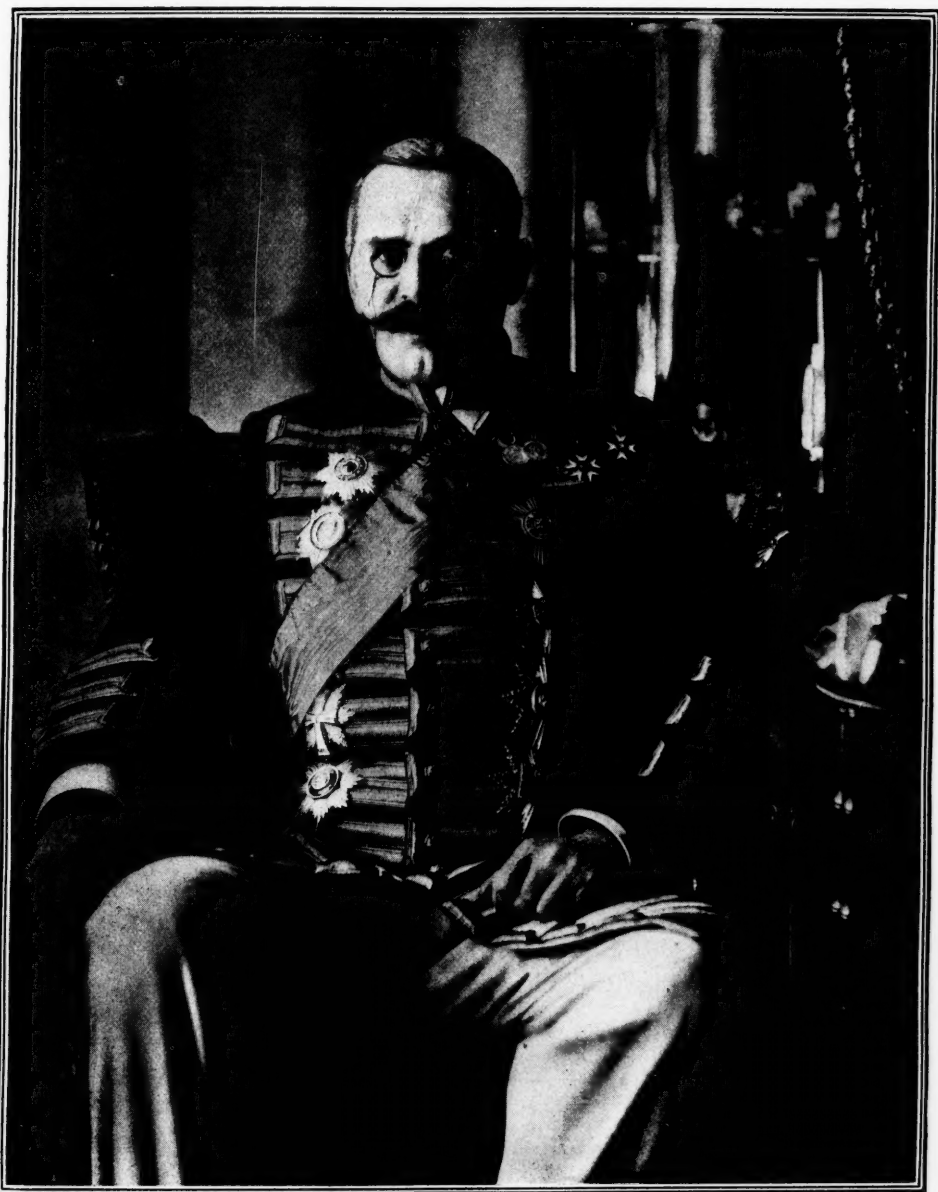
ONE of Russia's diplomats, of foreign parent age but enthusiastic patriotism, who has performed great services for his country and earned the personal thanks of the Czar Nicholas, is Count Arthur Pavlovich Cassini. After half a century in the diplomatic service of his country, the last seven years of which have been spent as Russian representative at Washington, Count Cassini, Master of the Imperial Russian Court, Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, and personal representative of the Czar to the United States, has been transferred, and will this month leave for St. Petersburg to present a personal oral report to the Czar, after which he will proceed to his new post in Madrid, to be succeeded at Washington by Baron Rosen.

Count Cassini is in his sixty-eighth year, and fifty of these years have been spent in the Russian foreign service. In 1854, young Arthur Cassini took a minor post in the ministry of finance, and the next year was transferred to the ministry of foreign affairs. He passed through various grades in European capitals, always distinguishing himself by exemplary zeal in his country's cause, and in 1891 was appointed to the very responsible post of Russian minister at Peking. It was while in the Chinese capital that Count Cassini became famous as the father of Russia's Manchurian policy. It was he who drafted the famous "Manchurian Convention." Referring to his services in China, the Czar, in his jubilee congratulation letter, said: "With tact and true understanding of Russia's interests so characteristic of yourself, you have aided, coping against difficult political circumstances, in the solution of important problems." Count Cassini was appointed Russian minister in 1897, and was soon promoted to the position of ambassador to the United States. He arrived in this country just as the war with Spain was about closing. Coming from Peking, where American interests had begun to increase rapidly as a result of our naval victories in Pacific waters, Count Cassini arrived in Washington in time to catch the spirit of the new impetus to our national life.

"There have been clouds on the horizon during my stay in America," said he to the writer, in the course of an interview in the rooms of the elegant Russian embassy in Washington. "Particularly difficult were the moments when the question of presenting a petition in the Kishinev matter was being discussed, and when American sympathy with Japan in the present

war became strikingly evident in the press. But there are hard moments in the history of all great peoples. Clouds will pass, and, thanks to the always eminently correct attitude of the American Government and the good sense of the American people, these clouds have either passed or are passing. The relations between the United States and Russia are cordial, and the relations between the two peoples are becoming better all the time. For historic as well as other reasons, the United States and Russia ought to be friends." Many times, Count Cassini asserted, he has seen striking evidences of Russian friendship for Americans. "I do not know why it is," said he, "but for Frenchmen and Americans there is always a warm welcome with the Russian people. As for myself, these seven years spent in the American capital have been the pleasantest of my whole diplomatic career. I can say, honestly and apart from complimentary phrases, that they form the brightest spot in half a century of foreign life for my government. I am very fond of the American people, and, although I expect to rest and perhaps have a somewhat easier time in Madrid, I regard my departure from Washington with deep and sincere regret."

Dignified, but frank and genial, with the enthusiasm of a boy, Count Cassini is perhaps a perfect representative of the charming gentleman and suave diplomat with which Russia is so richly blessed among her statesmen. Probably no foreign minister, not even the Spanish minister during our war with Spain, had a position requiring so much delicacy, tact, and genuine diplomatic gifts as Count Cassini at the time of the Kishinev disturbances and since the beginning of the war between Japan and Russia. It must be admitted that he has sustained his position with dignity and ability, loyalty to his own government, and satisfaction to that to which he is accredited. Count Cassini is a born aristocrat, and a staunch supporter of the autocratic régime. In spite of this, however, and while it may be difficult for him to fully sympathize with the present Liberal movement in the empire, he is frank to admit that many reforms are necessary, and, moreover, maintains that the imperial government is fully alive to the necessity for such reforms. But with a people like the Russians, he points out, so diverse in race, and, in the main, so untrained in educational and political matters, it is necessary to go very slowly. Real reforms will be brought about as the government is able to elaborate them and put them into exe-



Photograph by Clinedinst, Washington.

COUNT ARTHUR PAVLOVICH CASSINI.

cution. A beginning has been made in the very important matter of greater facilities for the exercise of that religious toleration which has always been the principle of the Russian state.

Count Cassini is proud of having contributed to the bringing about of a better understanding between Americans and Russians. He believes

that if the Russian people and the conditions of life in the Russian Empire were made more intelligible to Americans there would be greater sympathy between the two peoples. However, he firmly believes that a clear understanding of Russia and the Russians is becoming more and more widespread in this country.

JAPAN'S REPRESENTATIVE AT WASHINGTON.

WHILE the report that the Japanese ministry at Washington has been raised to the rank of an embassy is premature, it is nevertheless regarded as certain in diplomatic circles that at the close of the war the representative of the Mikado in this country will be made an ambassador. The present Japanese minister to this country, the Hon. Kogoro Takahira, has had a dignified and successful career, and his services to his country, as well as his popularity among Americans, it is believed in Washington, entitle him to be the first Japanese ambassador to the United States.

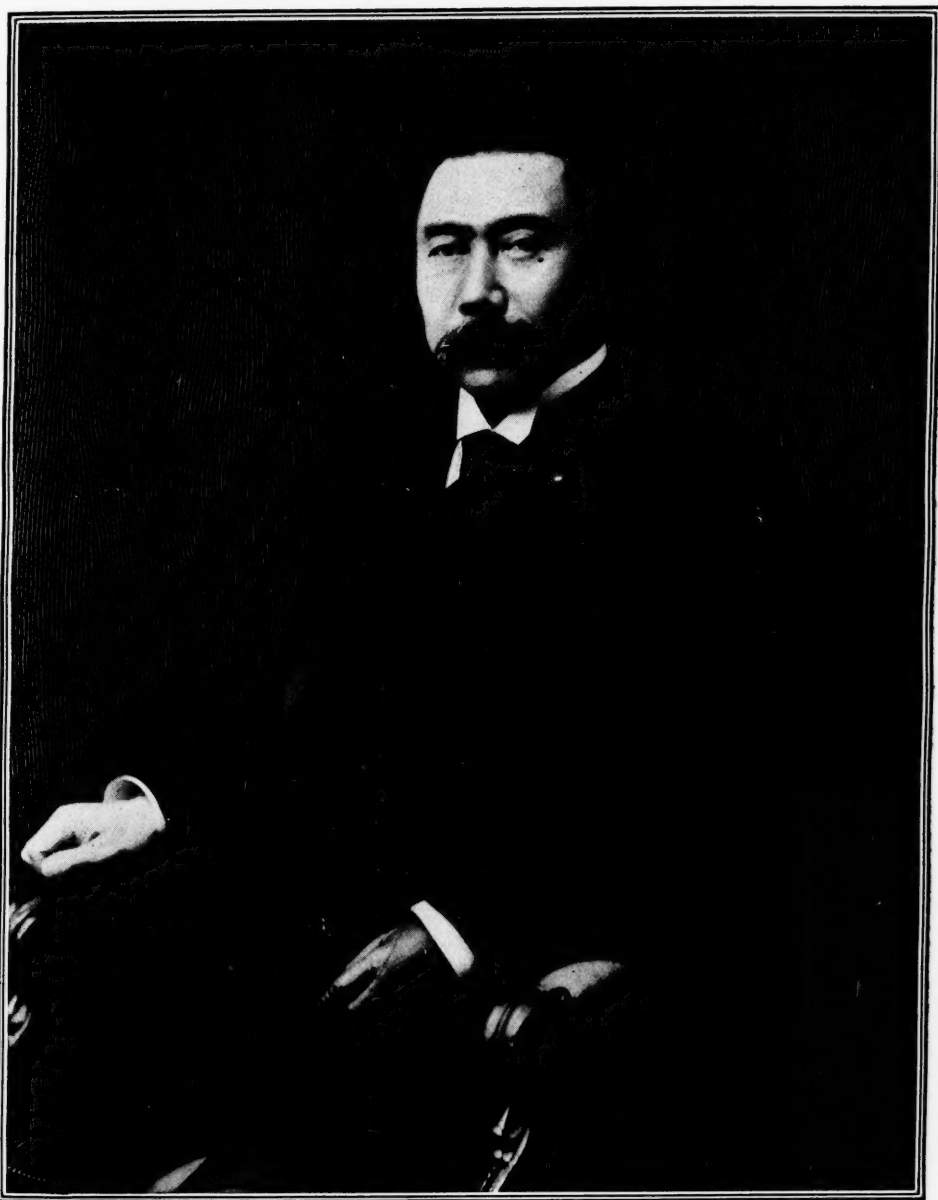
The diplomatic service of Japan as at present constituted is less than forty years old. Before the reign of the present emperor, Japan had scarcely any intercourse with the outside world, and no foreign diplomacy *per se*. About 1870, however, a representative service on the general lines of those constituting European services was established, and to-day there is a career for a young man in the diplomatic organization of Japan. As yet, the empire has only ministries abroad,—no embassies. The first ambassador, it is intended, will be accredited to this country, which has always been regarded as the best friend of Japan among the nations.

The career and experience of Mr. Kogoro Takahira embraces most of the varied changes in modern Japanese history. In his early youth he felt keenly and deeply the ancient feudal life of Samurai and Shogun, and when Japan abandoned the old order and set her face toward the new he swung into and developed with the new national life. Mr. Takahira is a fine example of the diplomat and gentleman of the far East. His culture and training are many-sided,—he is learned in Chinese philosophy and literature, he is a thorough scholar in the intricate literature of his own country, and he speaks and writes fluently in several European languages.

Mr. Takahira is not of the titled class,—he has risen from the ranks. Entering the imperial diplomatic service in 1876, after a thorough education at the Japanese capital, he was appointed *attaché* to the Japanese legation in Washington, becoming secretary of that legation in 1881. Two years later, he was appointed secretary of the foreign office. Later, he held a number of important posts, including those of *chargé d'affaires* in Korea (1885), consul-general at New York (1891), minister resident to Holland (1892), minister to Italy (1894), minister to Austria (1896), vice-minister for foreign affairs (1899), and minister to the United States (1900).

The Japanese minister is a man of middle age, of a strong, well-built frame, but broken somewhat from his experience of last winter, when he was operated on for appendicitis. Tactful and diplomatic, a dignified diplomat through and through, Mr. Takahira has creditably represented Japanese interests throughout the present difficult period of the war. He has only courteous expressions of appreciation for the admirable qualities of the Russian people, whom he understands thoroughly. He does not look for peace in the near future, but says that Japan is ready and prepared to continue the conflict as long as may be necessary. As to the possibility which has been suggested of a Russo-Japanese alliance after peace has been concluded, Mr. Takahira declares this can never be. The Japanese people, he points out, have been educated, politically, along Anglo-Saxon lines, and it would be very difficult to change this national bent. A Franco-Russian alliance might be possible, but a Russo-Japanese alliance never.

A firm believer in the stability and permanence of Japanese-American friendship, the minister declares that there need never be any real rivalry, political or economic, between the two peoples. "Japan," he said, in a recent conversation on the subject of the so-called "yellow peril"—"Japan feels very near to the United States. This friendliness began with the visit of Commodore Perry to our shores, and it has been greatly increased and deepened by the association of the armies of Japan and the United States in the recent movement to safeguard the highest interests of civilization in the East. The American nation is now an Eastern power, and her interests are very closely related to those of Japan. There is room for both of us in the trade of the Orient. We have much that we can sell to you; you have much that we want to buy. Our trade will be limited by our ability to produce, and you can produce much that the Orient wants. Of course, there will be sharp competition in certain fields of commerce, but, on the whole, the United States will profit by Japan's missionary labors in China and Korea. I expect that Japan will benefit by the American development of the Philippines and Hawaii, and the United States will reap advantages from the Japanese opening up of Formosa. We desire to improve our commercial relations with all countries, but particularly with the United States. Japan feels more and more convinced that for trade she must eventually look to the shores of the Pacific, and that the greatest of



Photograph by Prince, Washington.

MR. KOGORO TAKAHIRA.

waters must be dominated in the near future by the merchant vessels of the empire and of the United States." As to the possibility of a militarized China, under the leadership of Japan, advancing against Europe, the minister laughingly said: "We Japanese are not so foolish as to

believe that any two nations of the East in combination could successfully resist the might of the united West; and, besides, it would be impossible to unite China, with her diversity of races and tongues. Lastly, we would not do it if we could "

THE LARGER PROBLEM BEFORE ADMIRAL TOGO.

BY ADACHI KINNOSUKÉ.

NEARLY a year and a half ago, the supreme command of the combined squadrons of Nippon was placed in the hands of a modest man, small in stature, named Togo Heihachiro. In making this appointment his majesty the Emperor said to the admiral: "Here it is, the life and future of Nippon; we place them in your hands."

What the admiral has done in the way of fighting in the present war has pleased his countrymen; not in the least has it surprised them. Those achievements of his were nothing more than were expected of him. At other times, in the much more trying days, ten years ago, of the famous battle of the Yellow Sea, he did quite as much. Why, then, did not the outside world know something about him before the present war? You can ask the question of the outside world. To be a sea soldier, even a perfect sailor, as the looseness of the rhetoric goes,—brave, able, a master of his art,—this is a rather elementary qualification in the guardian of a nation's life and her future. Admiral Togo's handling of the battles has been much more remarkable for the statesmanship of it all than for mere soldierly qualities and ability. His flagship, the *Mikasa*, houses, to all appearances, the Japanese foreign office.

Since the historic 8th of February, 1904, Admiral Togo and his vessels have met the Russians more than once. Only once, on the 10th of August, did the Nippon admiral see fit to risk his heavier ships in a rather serious engagement. The story of the naval engagements of the present war reads as preliminary skirmishings,—so far as the Nippon side is concerned. And who knows that it may not turn out to be such? Even before the opening of the sad war, the officers of Nippon whose duty it was to know knew that practically the entire fighting force of the Czar, a force of unquestioned efficiency, was either already in the waters of Port Arthur and the Pacific or on its way to the far East; that what remained of Russia's fleet was great mainly on paper.

ADMIRAL TOGO AS A STATESMAN.

Admiral Togo has been saying, not by words of mouth or of ink, but by that language which any schoolboy can tell you is much more eloquent than words, that the real enemy he is expected to meet, and upon which he is willing to

pitch his entire strength and resources, is as yet below the horizon. The joint note of the triple alliance of Germany, Russia, and France which crowned our victorious arms with the defeat of a coward was a bitter medicine. Ten years ago, that was. Whatever happens is for the best. It was a healthy lesson. The ghost of that lesson has been always wandering through the imaginations of the nation. With the people of Nippon there is one sin that can never be either forgiven or forgotten. It is the sin against the honor of the sun-round flag. It is small wonder, therefore, that Admiral Togo has been fighting like a man whose chief enemy is on the other side of the peace negotiations with Russia; as if the imposing might of the Pacific squadrons of the Czar were nothing but a preliminary curtain-raiser to the real drama; as if he were quite ignorant as to the exact power of his final and most formidable antagonist, whose name or nationality he at present knows not.

THE FACTORS IN THE NAVAL PROBLEM.

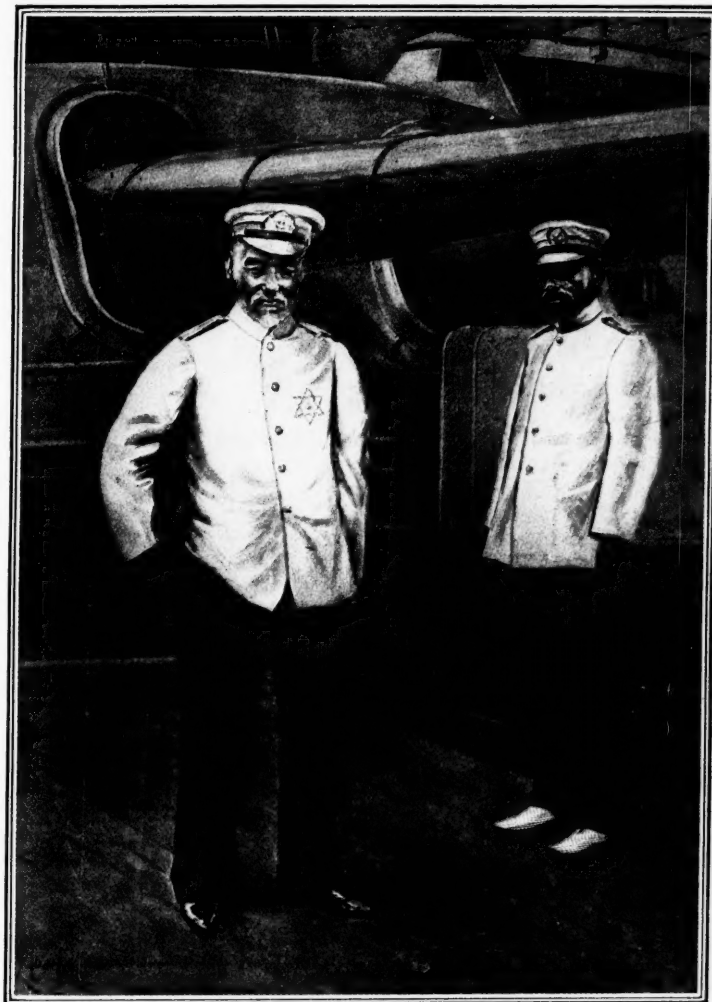
So far as we can see to-day (May 20), these are the courses open to Admiral Rozhdestvenski: (1) He can, if he wish, go to Vladivostok by the shortest and most ticklish way, which skirts up along the coasts of China and Korea, and which leads through the Formosa and Korea straits; (2) he can go to the same destination by steaming out into the Pacific and passing between Formosa and the Philippines, and through the Tsugaru Strait between Hokkaido and Hondo; (3) he can enjoy his summer cruises in the waters off Indo-China, and patiently wait the coming of the winter, which would afford him a little pleasanter clime in that portion of the world, meanwhile devoting his time and energy to improving the morals of neutral commerce in contraband goods; (4) he can detach a few of his faster and lighter ships and send them through the Pacific in the direction of Vladivostok, and these ships can,—provided, always, they escape a sudden death at the hands of the Nippon vessels,—do much to disturb the commerce upon the Pacific, and they can also, by means of this demonstration, try to lure a certain portion of the Nippon ships from their concentration; (5) Admiral Rozhdestvenski can also steam north in search of Admiral Togo and his principal squadrons, with the determination to force the issue; (6) he can also,

after a stay of a few months in the Indo-China waters,—not in the territorial waters of France, of course,—and, finding out to his thorough satisfaction and that of St. Petersburg that this means of bringing about a dramatic moment for peace negotiations which would result in honorable peace to Russia is a failure, steam the long way back to Libau.

Now, the ultimate end for both Togo and Rozhestvenski is always to bring about the best possible situation each for his own country. To gain the command of the sea for the Russian admiral is certainly one of the most effective methods by which to bring this war to a happy close. Can he attain this end by making his way into Vladivostok? Let us suppose that the Russian admiral gain Vladivostok with all his ships without mishap. After that, let us face these facts: Vladivostok is inferior as a port to what Port Arthur was at the time of the beginning of hostilities. The Port Arthur squadron was superior to the Baltic squadron; the personnel of the Port Arthur squadron was as much superior to the personnel of the Baltic squadron as the vessels at Port Arthur were superior to those under Rozhestvenski. In fact, and in spite of the general impression to the contrary, those men at Port Arthur were the flower of the Russian navy. The dock facilities of Port Arthur were superior to those of Vladivostok. It is a matter of history how the Port Arthur squadron fared in the game of gaining the command of the sea over the ships of Admiral Togo.

CAN ROZHESTVENSKI REACH VLADIVOSTOK?

Only a miracle can steer to port these good ships of Admiral Rozhestvenski in perfect health and without accident, through either the Korean or Tsugaru mined fields, and through something like three thousand miles of unfriendly waters.



ADMIRAL TOGO AND HIS CHIEF OF STAFF ON THE FOREDECK OF THE "MIKASA."

For an ordinary man supposedly blessed with the usual measure of common sense to accuse the Russian admiral of taking this desperate and meaningless way to Vladivostok is to insult his intelligence. Certainly, none of his Nippon admirers are guilty of it.

As for the third course mentioned, that of enjoying himself in the waters off Cochin China with such French friendliness as he could command, it is not an unreasonable one. In that case, all will be left to the ability of the diplomatists at St. Petersburg. And in the hands of a number of able men of Russia,—Count Cassini, for example,—this presence of a threat at Nippon's complete command of sea, however

shadowy, might be turned into a weapon of no mean magnitude, especially if the diplomatists of Nippon happen to show once again, as they have shown so many times before, that the backbone of Nippon is almost completely monopolized by our fighting men.

THE REAL AIM OF THE BALTIC FLEET.

This, then, seems to be the most reasonable explanation of the appearance of the Baltic squadron in the China Sea. Admiral Togo, who has the highest respect for and confidence in the diplomatic office at Tokio, has not the slightest misgiving on the ability of the men who would represent Nippon in the peace negotiations. What he wishes to do is to back their ability and words with as powerful a squadron as possible. Most assuredly, he would not risk any of his heavier vessels, even many of his torpedo craft, in going after the Russian ships. So long as his Russian friends are content to stay in the Indo-China waters, Admiral Togo certainly has no objections to seeing them there. Why should he not give them as long a string as they wish? Every hour of delay makes for their embarrassment—and his entertainment. Besides, being a statesman, he knows that France is too wise to make a sad matter worse. To threaten the highway on the Pacific must be a sore temptation to Admiral Rozhdestvenski. With the principal Pacific squadron lying athwart the Indo-China waters, the Pacific remains the only highway connecting Nippon with the treasure-chest and ammunition factories of the West. Under the Russian admiral's command there are at least a few good ships of above twenty knots' speed,—at least upon paper. You may say that some months ago the Vladivostok cruisers played at the same game, and that the Nippon admiral in front of Port Arthur only smiled and allowed them the freedom of the sea. With the European communications cut off in the south China Sea, however, matters might be a little different. Moreover, there is nothing to-day that pretends in importance and magnitude to compete with the Pacific squadron of Russia in engaging the eyes of Admiral Togo. Most naturally, therefore, this course on the part of the Russian admiral might tempt Admiral Togo to dispatch a certain number of his vessels after the raider. For the Russian admiral to dream of weakening Togo's

fighting force enough to afford the remaining ships of the Baltic squadron a fair chance of dealing a telling blow upon the enemy is to enjoy a dream that would be much fairer than the reality.

In the fifth place, it would be all very well for the Russian admiral to be reckless enough to start out on the thankless journey of discovering the whereabouts of Admiral Togo and his vessels; but if Admiral Togo were to decline a battle with the Russians, as he most probably would, what then? It would never do for the Russians to forget that in one thing they are at the mercy of their enemy,—they are not in place to dictate the time and place of a battle, if it should come to pass at all. That choice privilege belongs to the master of the superiority in speed, and to the master of the North Pacific and the Yellow and Nippon seas. The fleet of the Czar is, by long odds, inferior in speed to the ships of Admiral Togo. By the leave of the Nippon squadrons alone can the Russians have even an opportunity of meeting their enemy.

As for the sixth and the last course for the Russian admiral, stated above, Admiral Togo is in an excellent position to balk the fulfillment of it.

THE JAPANESE PICKET LINE.

A careful reading of the official reports of the naval movements of Nippon seems to spell out an invisible line which stretches from Amoy to Formosa, and through Formosa to the waters of the Philippine group, and eastward to the Pacific for many hundred knots. Till such time as the Russian vessels cross this line, there is poor prospect for the authorities on the science of naval warfare to receive any instructive lessons. When that line is crossed, then the curious may look for a thorny path for the Russian vessels which would stretch all the way to Vladivostok, and whose thorns are the torpedo boats and destroyers under the sun-round flag. In such a case, both the flying squadrons, composed of the splendid armored cruisers under Admiral Kamimura and the battleship squadron led by the *Mikasa* and her master, would be ever behind the screen of the active torpedo boats and destroyers. The result of the battle, if battle there be, is on the knees of the gods. One thing is certain,—Admiral Togo will never endanger the life of his great battleships unnecessarily.





SOME REPRESENTATIVE PERIODICALS OF MEXICO.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN MEXICO.

IF we leave out of consideration the large, illiterate population, Mexico has a reading public of which any progressive country might be proud. Without having a very large variety of periodicals to choose from, Mexican readers pay a generous tribute to the Fourth Estate. As the price of paper becomes less exorbitant and permits of the enlargement and improvement of the publications, now selling at extremely low prices, a great development of the press may be expected.

The city of Mexico, being the capital, is, of course, the center for periodicals. All those who are interested in politics make the city their headquarters and establish their organs there. The *Imparcial* is, by long odds, the leading daily. It is the official organ of the government, and has a circulation of 75,000 daily. Its editor, Attorney Rafael Reyes Spindola, a member of the Mexican Congress, is noted for his energy and business capacity. Under his direction, the *Mundo* (World), which is an afternoon edition of the *Imparcial*, with a circulation of 30,000, is issued. The *Popular*, edited by Don Francisco Montes de Oca, ranks next to the *Imparcial*, having a circulation of 50,000. From the *Popular* press-rooms the *Argos*, an afternoon sheet, also edited by Don Francisco Montes de Oca, is sent forth. This paper is dedicated to humorous, fictitious news. It is widely read.

Catholic dailies have wide circulations. The *Tiempo* (Times), official organ of the Catholics, is edited by Señor Victoriano Agüeros, who is probably the most popular editor in Mexico. The *Pais* (Country), which has thousands of readers in the country towns, is less dignified than the *Tiempo*, which is read chiefly in the large cities. This paper, also a strong supporter of Catholicism, is edited by Don T. Sánchez Santos. Few Mexican dailies are as carefully edited as the *Patria*, which pleases the anti-foreigners, but does not circulate very widely. Of the Liberal or Independent papers, the *Diario del Hogar* (Fireside Daily) is the most respectable and prosperous. Then comes *Sucesos* (Events).

Foreigners have several periodicals. The *Mexican Herald*, which is the largest and best daily in the country, supplies the English-speaking element with news. It has a circulation of about 10,000. Its editor, Mr. Frederick Guernsey, is an especially able writer. The paper is a favorite organ with Mexican officials. The *Daily Record* is a new-born afternoon English journal. Spain's children read the *Correo Español* (Spanish Mail), a paper noted for excellent articles. Frenchmen have the *Courrier du Mexique* to peruse. Financial interests are served by the *Financiero Mexicano* and the *Mexican Investor*.

Two biweeklies of note are published,—namely, the *Tribuna*, a Catholic organ, and the *Paladin*,

of Liberal ideas. The former has a large circulation in the capital, and the latter in the country.

There are several weeklies of merit. Chief of these is *Artes y Letras* (Art and Literature), edited by Señor Ernesto Chavero, a noted short-story writer. It is very artistic and high-priced, selling for fifty cents (gold) per copy, but is well patronized. The *Mundo Ilustrado*, published by the editor of the *Imparcial* and the *Mundo*, is well illustrated and widely read. The *Sema-*



SEÑOR VICTORIANA AGÜEROS.

(Editor of the *Tiempo*, of Mexico City.)

nario Literario (Literary Weekly), published by the *Tiempo* Company, which also edits the *Tiempo Ilustrado*, enjoys a reputation for quality. Señor Heriberto Barrón, a well-known poet, edits the *Revista Literaria* (Literary Review).

The *Colmillo Público* (Public Tusk) is a daily journal of caricatures edited by Señor Fernandez Perez. It is opposed to President Diaz. Some of the ablest of Mexico's writers contribute to its columns over assumed names. The circulation is about 25,000. The *Ahuizote Jacobin* (Liberal Old Disturber) is of the same class as the *Colmillo*, but better printed.

The *Heraldo Agrícola* is the agriculturists' organ. Mexico's imperialists have an organ, the *Tercer Imperio* (Third Empire), imperialistic in name only. During the bull-fighting seasons, weeklies in the interest of the favorite sport are published. There are two English weeklies, the *Saturday Night* and the *Anglo-American*, the latter edited by General Agramonte.

Other dailies of the capital are the *Boletín Judicial* (Judicial Bulletin), edited by Señor Audomaro Reyes; the *Diario Oficial del Gobierno de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos* (Official Journal of the Mexican Government); *El Fero*, edited by Francisco Alfaro, and the *Gaceta* (Gazette), edited by Señor Salvador Resendi.

Most of the smaller cities have either too many periodicals or none whatever. For instance, Guaymas has four dailies,—the *Correo de Sonora*, the *Trafico*, the *Libertad*, and the *Noticias*,—for a population of 7,000, while Tulancingo, population of 30,000, has no paper whatever, daily or weekly. In Guadalajara, the second largest city, there is the *Diario de Jalisco*, with morning and afternoon editions, and a circulation of 20,000. The *Jalisciense*, issuing 10,000 copies daily, is also published in that city, as is also the *Comercio*, another daily. Of these, the *Jalisciense*, alone, is opposed to the government. Puebla, the Catholic center, has but little less population than Guadalajara, yet it has no daily. The *Idea* is a weekly of the city, sometimes read. It is devoted to the clergy. In Vera Cruz, the Liberal stronghold, there are several dailies, of which the *Opinion*, edited by Francisco Arias, is the leader, having morning and afternoon editions. The *Heraldo* and the *Orden Público* are extensively circulated. Monterey has two dailies, the *Constitucion* and the *Democrata*; San Luis Potosi one, the *Cuarto Poder* (Fourth Estate); Oaxaca one, the *Oaxaqueño*; Chihuahua one, the *Eco de Chihuahua*, and Tampico one, the *Progreso*.

English dailies and weeklies are published in many places. The *News*, of Monterey, ranks next to the *Mexican Herald* as a daily. Guadalajara has two English weeklies, the *Times* and the *News*.

Other Mexican periodicals, which have an influence but are not national in their scope, are: (weeklies) the *Economista Mexicano* (Mexican Economist), edited by Carlos Diaz Dufoo; the *Fronde*, edited by Mme. Marie Roussel de Galignara (French); the *Echo Français*, edited by Henri Capillaud (French), and the *Revista Moderna*, edited by Jesús Valenzuela; (monthlies) the *Arte Musical*, edited by Aurelio Cadena y Marin; *Arte y Ciencia* (Art and Science), edited by Nicolás Manicatt; the *Haciendado Mexicano* (Mexican Household), edited by A. J. Jamet (English and Spanish); *Modern Mexico*, edited in Mexico and New York by Paul Hudson, the most enterprising newspaper man in Mexico, in Spanish and English; the *Mujer Mexicana* (Mexican Woman), edited by Mesdames Columba Rivera and Luz F. viuda de Herrera (the widow of Señor de Herrera), and the *Pan-American World*, edited in English and Spanish by W. W. Rasor.

F. S.

MOROCCO AND THE FRENCH INTERVENTION.

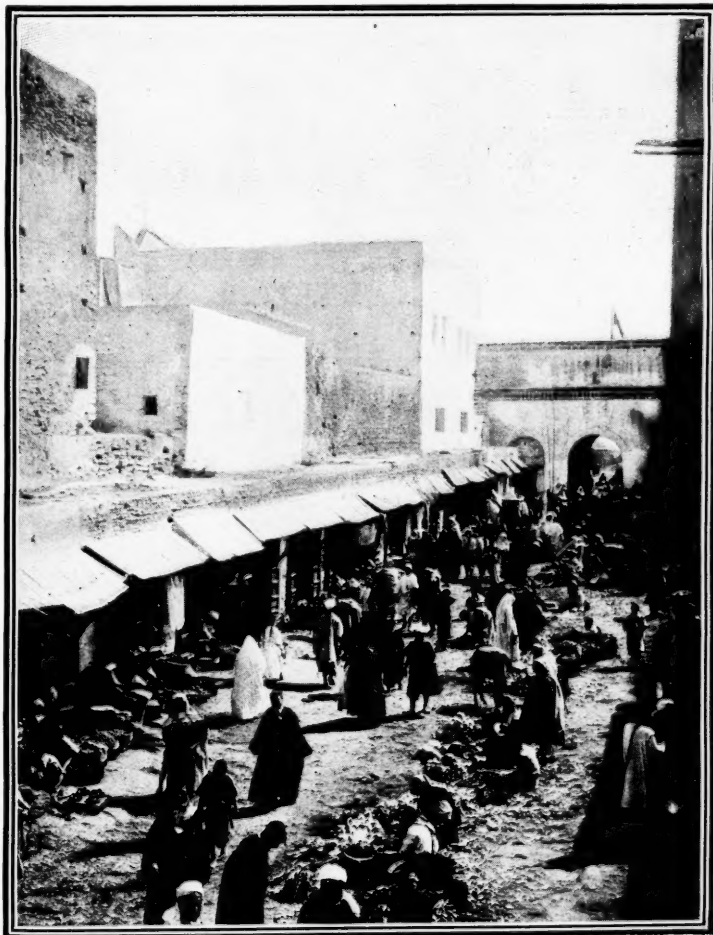
BY R. L. N. JOHNSTON.

(Former British consul, now acting consul for Denmark, Norway and Sweden, and Belgium, in southern Morocco.)

TO the tourist—no matter from which side of the Atlantic—Morocco is a seemingly treeless land, a region of immense distances, of sun-scorched plains and snowclad mountains. Each of its eight seaports, from Tetuan to Mogador, bears a likeness to the others in its dazzling limewashed houses and crenelated ramparts, its swarms of supercilious camels and their swarthy drivers, the glow and the gloom of its narrow streets, its gaberdined Jews and its coyly veiled women. Then there are the same curious little box-like shops, wherein, without a name over the door, and never dreaming of the sweet uses of advertisement, perches, cross-legged, the bearded vender of calico, sugar, and green tea, all his stock in trade within an arm's-length. The same pariah dogs; the same cows, wandering about the market-place in search of fodder; the same cry of the water-seller, dispensing from the bulging goatskin slung across his hip mugsful of the precious fluid to parched Arabs just arrived from the weird interior with their loads of produce, —wheat and barley from the plains of Abda and Dukala, wool and almonds from the highlands, and Alláh knows what besides.

All of which, after a week or two, grows deadly monotonous, and so continues, until it dawns upon you that each of these country folk, Bedouin; every fair-skinned son of Fez (or Fas, as you learn to call it); all these children of the Great Atlas range, knowing no Arabic to speak of, and clinging sturdily to their

Shilbah tongue,—each of them has a life-story of his own, and could, if only he would, tell you in a day more of the real Morocco, with its hopes and its fears, its hatreds and its loves, its unwritten songs and its folklore, than all the books that have yet been penned concerning this fair land of sunset and sunshine. Then comes the craving to see these men at home, in their own country, and —fate being propitious—you fare eastward and



MARKET DAY, MOGADOR, MOROCCO.

southward, to imperial Fez, to the palm groves of Red Marráksh, and maybe, if Alláh and your luck have so decreed, to the enchanted regions of Atlas, the borderland of the Garden of the Hesperides, under skies of all but perennial blue, at once the despair and the paradise of the painter; a clime nearly as perfect, in early summer, as that of California; a land destined to become, perchance, not only the granary, but the sanatorium of Europe; and a land, moreover, through the greater part of which you may, in normal times, roam unmolested, receiving kindly hospitality from every Arab and Berber to whom you carry three lines of recommendation.

THE WEIGHT OF RELIGIOUS AUTHORITY.

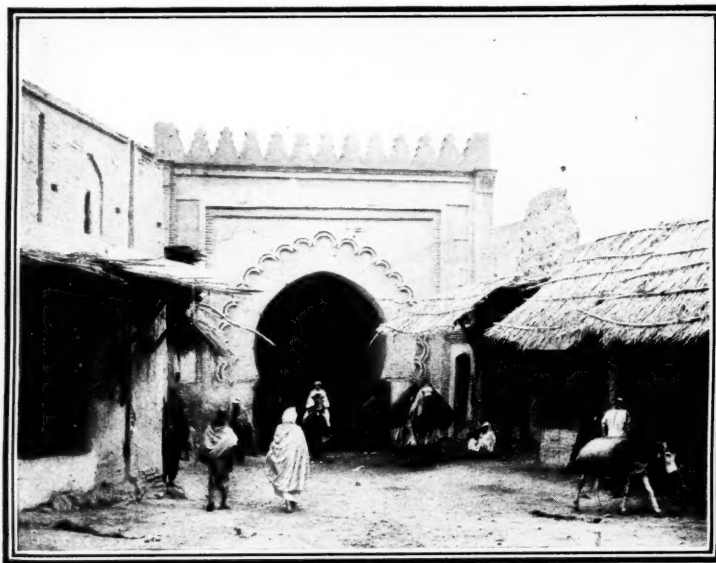
A very wonder, among these unlettered folk, is the spell of the written word. Try to imagine it, ye ready penmen of the new world and the old,—ten thousand villages and hamlets yonder, beyond the zone of our treaty ports, and perhaps but one man in each of them who can so much as sign his name! That living marvel, the *taleb*, or scribe, not only does the scanty correspondence of his tribe,—his task it is to conduct the daily prayers in the rude hut which serves for mosque; he advises the sheik on the weighty matters of the law, and is the last authority, for peasant as for prince, on all that touches the duties of the true believer. A mighty power this, in any land; imagine what it means in

Morocco. Here we smile incredulously at the mere possibility of doubt; and the question, "Do we believe?" which has of late been agitating so many good folk in the old country, has no meaning. Pathetic as it may seem, the Moslem of Sunset Land believes in his God as implicitly as in his own existence. He believes, too, that his invincible Alláh has granted the rule of ocean to the accursed Nazarenes, and victory on dry land to Islam. Grotesque, perhaps; but there are eight millions of this believer, including half a million grown men.

POWER OF THE AUTOCRACY.

We are accustomed to speak conventionally of Morocco as a despotic monarchy. Try to imagine what that is. As it touches the bulk of the people, it means mainly taxation without representation. It means, too, that the pettiest official,—say, the deputy captain of a third-rate port,—is appointed by royal commission, for which somebody at court pockets a hundred dollars; that, in some districts, the farmer may not thrash his grain until permission is granted from Fez. Picture, if you can, a nation of eight millions, of natural intelligence—all things considered—above the average, and with the keenest appetite for news, not possessing one single newspaper in the vernacular. The only appeal from a judge's decision in the remotest corner of the sultanate is the monarch in Fez, involving a wearisome, costly, and, probably, dangerous journey of fourteen days. The proudest chieftain may not, technically, pay a visit to a seaport without royal sanction. If he were to embark for the shortest sea trip without that permission, his castle and all its contents would assuredly be confiscated. On his periodical visits to the capital, for the purpose of handing in tribute, he is liable to be thrust into life-long captivity for no greater crime than having failed to extract cash from bare flesh. Such is the power wielded by the ruler of Sunset Land.

But behind, around, and above the throne is the power of the men of the pen, the interpreters of the Koran. Whether they be members of the supreme



THE "THURSDAY" GATE, BAB-EL-KHANUS, OF MARRÁKSH, LEADING TO THE WEEKLY MARKET.



INSIDE "RED MARRÁKSH," MARRÁKUSHA-EL-HAMRA.

council of *aulama*, or mere village scribes, their teaching is one, and their combined influence far transcends, within its natural limits, even that of the Society of Jesus. This is the force we have to reckon with in weighing the probable issues of the existing deadlock between France and Morocco. The direction in which this dread influence will be applied seems to be the question of the moment.

THE CHALLENGE OF THE LEARNED CLASS TO THE FOREIGN INFIDEL.

Their position was recently summed up by a typical member of the class as follows:

What do you want of us, you Christians? Do we owe you money? We can, and will, pay you. Have we invaded your land? Did we beg you to come and reside on our soil? Have we not continuously discouraged your so doing? You say our country is "disturbed," that the government is weak, and so on. Is that your affair or ours? Surely your steamers, which brought you here, can take you back to your own shores. What have you done that we should love you? You have taught many of us, a nation of water-drinkers, to be drunkards. You have also smuggled into our country magazine rifles by the thousand, and sold them, at 100 per cent. profit, to our rebels, causing

the very mischief you complain about. You have, first, duped and then betrayed our Sultan. Now you say you will help us to govern. We decline your help. We are told, in the writing of Alláh, "Oh, true believers, take not the Jews or Christians for your friends;" and, again, "Oh, true believers, take not the unbelievers for your protectors." You would help our Sultan to repress rebellion; and we are to allow you to slaughter our erring brethren? Never! When we have declined your pacific intervention, what then? You will use force. So be it. We also shall fight, for our land, our families, our dead saints, and our living faith. With this difference, we trust in our God; you have none.

THE COUNTRY AND ITS PRODUCTS.

So much, all too imperfectly, of the people and their passionate faith. What of the country itself, its salient characteristics and capabilities? With a coast line, washed by the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, of nearly 1,300 miles, and a total area nearly double that of Great Britain and Ireland combined, the empire of Morocco possesses a soil which for the variety of its products is, perhaps, without a rival. On the great plains and undulating champaigns of Shawia, Abda, and Dukala you may travel for days through unhedged fields of wheat, barley, beans,

and maize. Hemp and coriander seed, tobacco, and nearly all the fruits and flowers of the Mediterranean littoral flourish in profusion. From the Atlas spurs and the province of Soos, one port alone has shipped a million dollars' worth of almonds in a year. The same port, Mogador, sends annually half a million dollars' worth of Morocco leather, in the shape of goatskins, to London and Hamburg, the bulk of which is trans-shipped to the United States of America. In a year of normal fertility, this same port furnishes half a million dollars' worth of olive oil, a total which a really "good" year doubles and trebles. In the same list of exports we find precious gums of the Sudan to the value of \$500,000, the resin of the *arar* tree, sandarac—grown nowhere but in Morocco—eggs (mainly for London), ostrich feathers, *argan* oil, garbanzos, and a host of minor items, all of which point to a productive power far exceeding that of any of the countries on the southern shore of the Mediterranean sea.

THE BURDEN OF TAXATION.

Yet the total trade of Morocco, approaching \$20,000,000 annually, gives no idea of what it will be under other conditions. The Moorish agriculturist guides a plow which might have been used in the days of Abraham. Machinery, outside the treaty ports, is absolutely unknown. The unmuzzled bullock is still the only means of thrashing the corn. Anything like state or other encouragement to plant trees and breed fine cattle is undreamed of. "Why don't you imitate your fathers, and lay out a new orchard?" I asked a farmer friend, in my days of ignorance. Pitying which, he remarked gently, "And have my taxes doubled?" Add to these obstacles the total absence of canals, of roads fit for wheeled traffic, of rivers navigable (though to make them so would be a simple task), and of any general system of irrigation. We see the amazing spectacle of a government taxing its own exports, twenty dollars per ton on oil, nearly two dollars per quarter on maize and beans, and treating most of the other kindly fruits of the earth in like fashion. But we do

not see the working of the iniquitous taxes placed on these same goods on their road from the grower to the seaport, taxes levied at every few miles of the route on the pretense of "protecting" the caravan. The marvel is, not that Morocco to-day exports so little, compared with its boundless capacity, but that it gives us so much.

DEVELOPMENT OF NATURAL RESOURCES.

In the proposed reconstruction of Morocco [writes Mr. M. Aflalo,* in his deeply interesting summary of



MOULAI HAFID, VICEROY OF SOUTHERN MOROCCO. ON HIS RIGHT, A TALEB (SCRIBE); ON HIS LEFT, HIS DOORKEEPER.

the present situation], quite apart from the ordinary commercial imports, there will be needed immense quantities of plant purchased with the resources of Morocco itself, such as steel bridges, mountains of cement for the construction of breakwaters at the ports, machinery, rails, locomotives, railway carriages and trucks. Barrages will have to be constructed. Dredgers will be required for the removal of silt from the bar ports and for deepening the existing harbors. Steam launches and lighters will be needed for the eight Moroccan ports. Lighthouses will have to be erected along the coast. Clothing, arms, ammunition, and artillery will be in demand for the use of the native troops. It is quite probable that for many years to come the value of all this imported material may equal, or even exceed, the total value of Morocco's present commercial imports and exports.

Not less important will be the development of her

* "The Truth About Morocco." John Lane: London and New York.

undoubted mineral resources, which are positively known [says Mr. Aflalo] to include iron, nickel, antimony, argentiferous galena, copper, silver, and gold.

Little wonder, then, that the powers and individuals concerned in the promised opening up of such a region are watching with intense interest every step taken by France, an interest not unmingled with anxiety as to the turn events may take in the immediate future. Fully to apprehend the underlying factors at work in the drama now about to be presented in the world's arena, we must glance briefly at the latest page, albeit a sad one, in the history of the Sunset Land, written from the inside, ere the curtain rise.

THE ILL-FATED REIGN OF ABD-EL-AZIZ.

Since the death of Sultan Moulay-el-Hassan, in 1894, the internal affairs of Morocco have been gliding from normal to bad, and from bad to worse. For some years, indeed, the iron-handed vizier, Ba-Hamed, preserved some semblance of authority over the great tribes of Rahamna and Soos, in the south, and the equally turbulent elements in the northern and central provinces. He quelled a rebellion which threatened to end in revolution. He succeeded in collecting tribute and taxes, whereby the treasury was able to support an army sufficiently strong for the preservation of order in and around the capitals, Fez and Marráksh, and among the tribes near the treaty ports from Tetuan to Mogador. So far as the foreign representatives located at Tangier were concerned, there was a govern-



KAID SIR HENRY MACLEAN, THE OLDEST EUROPEAN DRILL-MASTER IN THE SULTAN'S ARMY, AND KAID-EL-MENEHBI, RECENTLY MINISTER OF WAR.



ABD-EL-AZIZ, THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO.

ment with whom they could treat; a *makhzen* able to make its decisions respected by its subjects on all questions in which foreigners had any concern.

Meanwhile where was the young Sultan, Abd-el-Aziz? Ba-Hamed's nominal master—then a lad of about fifteen—rarely emerged from the seclusion of the palace; and when he did come before his people, every word he uttered was prompted in a low tone by the watchful vizier. "Tell me what it was like," I said to a friendly courtier (no admirer of Ba-Hamed), who had just come from the reception of a deputation by his Majesty. He smiled. "Try to imagine," said he, "a raven teaching a little canary to sing."

While Ba-Hamed lived he was almost universally suspected of an intention to make himself Sultan, and the concealment of his royal lord was pointed to as evidence of this ambition. We have every reason now to believe that his motives were honest. He had detected in the young monarch a most un-Moorish trustfulness of character, combined with a liberality in money matters which may mildly be described as extravagant.

Vizier Ba-Hamed once dead and disposed of,

the real power, such as it is, was shared for a time between Fadool Gharnit, champion of the old school and formerly minister of Moulai-el-Hassan, and his younger rival, Kaid-el-Menebhi, representing what we carelessly call reform. Gharnit was backed by the conservative, ultra-religious element, nowhere so strong and so passionate as in Fez.

El-Menebhi, on the other hand, far more accessible to outside, non-Moslem influences, played the graceful part of medium between the foreign adventurers who flocked to the Elevated Court and the now emancipated young Sultan. For a season all goes merrily as marriage bells. Sunset Land is to be regenerated from within, on the initiation of a liberal-minded monarch whose chosen friends and advisers are in the main European. So much we learn from the inspired paragraphs of our London journals. What are the facts? One great "reform" is inaugurated. The unpopular *freeda* tax,—or, rather, tribute,—is abolished, with the result that the treasury, in Moorish parlance, "empties itself," the provincial governors continuing to collect the tribute—for their own account.

Plans and estimates are received, and all but accepted, for the laying down of a railway, and for the building of a Christian quarter in the city of Moulai Idris, the founder of Islamism in Morocco. All of which, false or true, is wafted by rumor, and told in letters, to the wild men of the plains and the hills; from Riff to Atlas, from Tangier to Tafilalt; to be discussed in bazaar and tribal market, at first in ominous whispers and bated breath; and, as time goes on (every travel-stained courier bringing confirmation), with a growl which grows to a roar, as yet unheard in the palace, lulled by strains of piano and gramophone.

The storm was precipitated by a lamentable occurrence. A British missionary—by name, Cooper—to Moors the living emblem of the threatened Nazarene *régime*, was murdered by a fanatic (whether mad or sane does not appear), who took "sanctuary" in the shrine of Morocco's most revered saint, Moulai Idris. Now, the unwritten law of sanctuary is so terrific a power in this country that a criminal, taking refuge in the doorway of a mere infidel Nazarene, like you or me, dear reader, will at least secure something like a legal trial,—possibly a free pardon. On only one recorded occasion has the Sultan himself dared to violate the sanctuary afforded by a tenth-rate little saint-house, of which Morocco has thousands. Here the offender, held by the people to be half mad—and for that reason a saint—appealed to the very father of western Islam, the ghostly protector of all Sunset

Land's faithful believers. Urged by one of his wholly irresponsible European advisers, Abd-el-Aziz had the sublime courage to have the murderer dragged from the sepulcher of Moulai Idris and forthwith shot.

This act of somewhat hasty justice, naturally applauded in Europe, all but cost the young Sultan his crown. Through the length and breadth of the empire rang the cry, "Moulai Idris will be avenged." As instrument of the divine retribution arose the Pretender, and with the undisciplined tribesmen, who flocked by thousands to his standard, routed not only the half-hearted imperial cavalry, but the boasted *aaskar*, or "regulars," trained though they have been for twenty years by French and English drillmasters. For ten months, Fez remained practically in a state of siege. Small loans were raised and exhausted. The army melted away. The one imperative need of the moment was money. It was supplied by France, her not very lavish advances being secured by a lien on 60 per cent. of the customs' dues, which she is now collecting. To-day, the Pretender is in triumphant possession of the once imperial fortress of Taza, three days' easy journey from Fez, the treasury is again empty, and the army nonexistent.

THE PERDICARIS EPISODE.

Contempt for the *makhzen*, or royal cabinet, and for the rights of foreigners, is no longer confined to the northeastern provinces. Has any reading American forgotten how, within gunshot of the legations at Tangier, a United States citizen, Ion Perdicaris, perhaps the most distinguished private individual in the whole country, was kidnaped by an enterprising chieftain, who, despite the intervention of the Francophile family of Wazzan, equal in sanctity to any in Morocco, insisted on terms of release the acceptance of which revealed the utter impotence of the Moorish Government to control its own subjects at the very gates of its leading seaport, the residence of the foreign plenipotentiaries? The example set so energetically and with such complete success by Raissuli opened the eyes of the lawless tribes all over northern and central Morocco, with the result that brigandage, rapine, and murder have become of every-day occurrence throughout the land which native official correspondence describes as the "Happy Realm" of his Shereefian Majesty.

WHY FRANCE UNDERTAKES INTERVENTION.

This is France's *locus standi* for intervention: It is intolerable that in the twentieth century



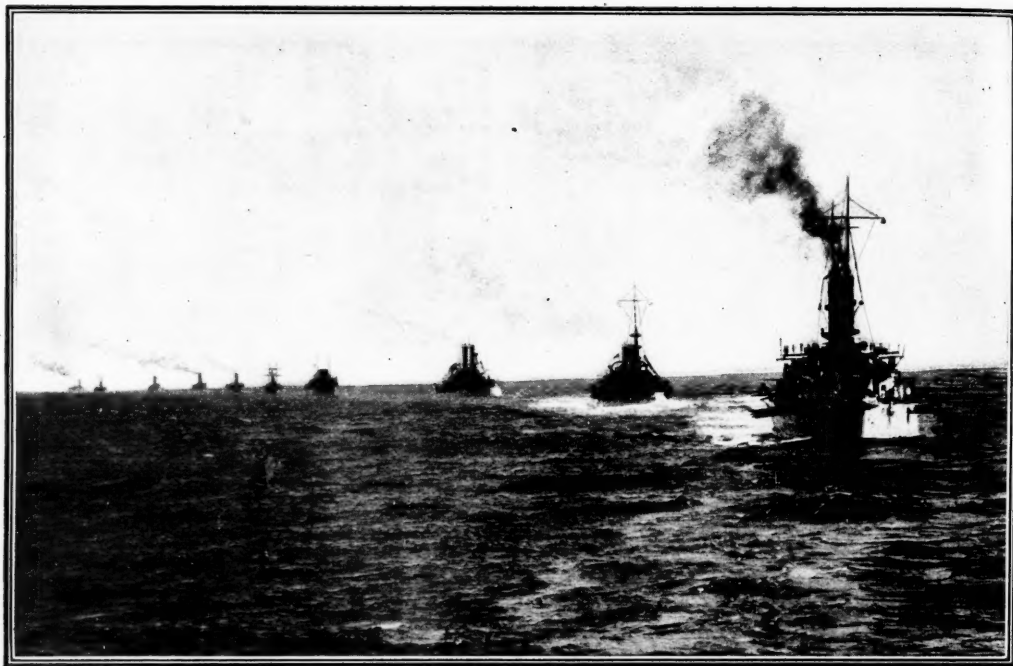
GATE OF THE CITADEL, MARRÁKSH.

some eight thousand Europeans in Morocco should continue to exist in terror for their lives, and for their property, because the nominal lord of the country is no longer able to make the treaties respected by his subjects. We have the mandate of the powers most interested. Of England, whose position as mistress of the rock beyond the narrow straits, and of no little voice in Mediterranean affairs, cannot be ignored. Of Spain, your neighbor on the north, not to speak of her "sphere of influence" Rio de Ouro way, beyond your southern borders. We ourselves are tired of your turbulent tribes near the Algerian frontier. The day of misrule must have an end, and promptly. We are willing—nay, anxious—to help you govern your country, with all our influence, all our force. Accept our assistance and we will guarantee your throne. If you decline it, we shall have, most reluctantly, to employ other measures.

Between the two fires stands the poor young Sultan, surely one of the most pathetic figures in the history of royal personages. Abandoned

by England, whom he trusted; awake, at last, to the peril of his situation, to his own weakness, and to the fierce determination of his eight millions of Moslems to defy foreign intervention, pacific or otherwise; if he so much as dallies with France, revolution; if he scout her proposals, war; military occupation of every seaport now, annexation later, and the inevitable collapse of his dynasty.

Nor is the task undertaken by France a light one. If she requires an Algerian army of one hundred and fifty thousand men to overawe her native subjects of that colony, in Morocco she has to face this solid fact: Half a million of men, of the plains and of the mountains, hardy and enduring, accustomed from early youth to carry arms, inured to long marches by night and by day, and every man of them resolved to fight to the death for the land and the faith. A people which believes in its heart of hearts that there is an Almighty God battling for Islam, and that, should death come, to fall in the holy war is a passport to Paradise.



THE FLEET, LED BY THE U. S. S. "ALABAMA," STEAMING TO PORT, SHOWING FORMATION, EACH SHIP 400 YARDS APART.

THE MANEUVERS OF A WAR FLEET IN TIME OF PEACE.

BY G. UPTON HARVEY.

(Representative of the *Army and Navy Register* at the Naval Maneuvers of 1905.)

TOWARD the end of December, each year, we read in the public prints that the fleet has been reviewed by the Secretary of the Navy or some other officer high in command, and that it has departed for the Caribbean for the winter maneuvers. Usually, nothing more is heard of the fleet until about April 1, when it arrives off Pensacola for target practice. It is not strange, then, that the public has but a hazy idea of the relation of these winter cruises to the preparedness and efficiency of our navy.

The maneuvering of a ship is of an importance on a par with accuracy of gun-fire. A ship that can make a hit with almost every shot but is badly handled may be—nay, often is—more dangerous to its friends than to its enemies; and a ship that can make but few hits is almost useless, however well it may be maneuvered. Thus, it will be seen that a ship's fighting value is equally dependent upon its handling and the accuracy of its gun-fire, and hence the months of hard work devoted to ship and fleet maneuvers and target practice.

Civilian opinion of the life of the officers and men of our navy is all too commonly founded upon the actions of jackies on shore leave,—their first liberty, perhaps, in months,—and what may be observed by visiting the ships in one of our navy yards. The writer is fortunate enough to be in a position to record the impression made upon a civilian who has seen something of the life of officers and men who in time of peace are preparing themselves and their ships to meet any emergency in time of war.

The thing that most impresses the civilian, perhaps, is the manner in which the ships of the fleet are handled. He has often marveled at the skill exhibited in the management of a troop of horses made to march in column; change to double column, turn and wheel, and then charge to the front in line. Imagine, then, his feelings when he sees these same evolutions performed by a squadron of mighty battleships and cruisers of from 10,000 tons' to 16,000 tons' displacement, manned by from 500 to 800 men,—and this, too, when the tumbling sea is ham-

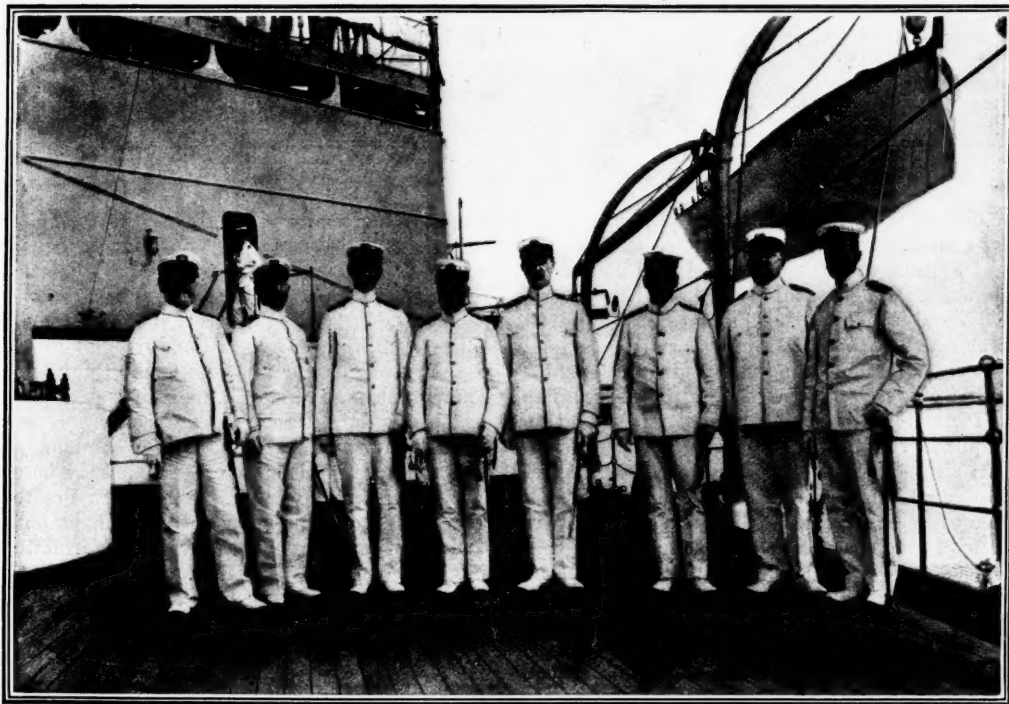
mering and smashing at the line. Here, if you please, is an exhibition of skill that makes the maneuvers of a cavalry troop seem like child's play; here are monsters of death and destruction prancing, wheeling, driving ahead with almost irresistible force, yet seemingly obeying like live things the word of command from the pygmy-like being on the bridge. This is one of the results of the months spent in maneuvering—which is but another way of saying training for ships and men.

When the admiral in command desires that a day be devoted to maneuvers, the last thing at night he signals the ships of the fleet to bank fires and be ready to get under way by eight o'clock on the morrow. Every detail of the ship's equipment is examined and properly disposed, and long before the hour set the banks of smoke pouring from the funnels of the various ships indicate that only the signal is awaited to set the fleet in motion. On the after bridge of the flagship stands the admiral. The forward bridge is reserved for the ship's captain

and the navigating officer. The admiral's command, "Prepare to get under way," is repeated by the signal officer, and within a second the signal boys are hoisting the number which conveys the command to the other ships. Almost instantly the same signal number flutters at the peak of every ship in the fleet, showing that the admiral's command has been received.

There is, by the way, great competition among the ships as to this matter of repeating signals. Usually, one quartermaster on each ship constantly keeps his glass leveled on the flagship, and the instant he sees any movement among the signal boys he sings out, "Stand by, signal boy." In a flash the signal is read, and up goes the corresponding flag. Expressions of satisfaction fly about if the other ships are beaten.

When the order of the admiral is to be executed, the signal on the flagship is hauled down. By this time the marine guard is on deck, the ship's flag has been removed from the quarter-deck and hoisted above the after fighting top, and the ship is in motion. The flagship signals



THE ADMIRAL AND THE CAPTAINS OF THE BATTLESHIPS.

(Reading from left to right: Capt. William H. Reeder, commanding the U. S. S. *Alabama*; Capt. Edward D. Taussig, commanding the U. S. S. *Massachusetts*; Capt. Raymond P. Rodgers, commanding the U. S. S. *Kearsarge*; Rear-Admiral A. S. Barker, commander-in-chief of the North Atlantic fleet; Capt. John A. Rodgers, commanding the U. S. S. *Illinois*; Capt. Benjamin F. Tilley, commanding the U. S. S. *Iowa*; Capt. William S. Cowles, commanding the U. S. S. *Missouri*, and Capt. William J. Barnette, commanding the U. S. S. *Kentucky*.)



FIRING A 6-POUNDER AT TARGET PRACTICE ON THE "ALABAMA."

the course, the speed, and the formation, and the fleet steams for the open.

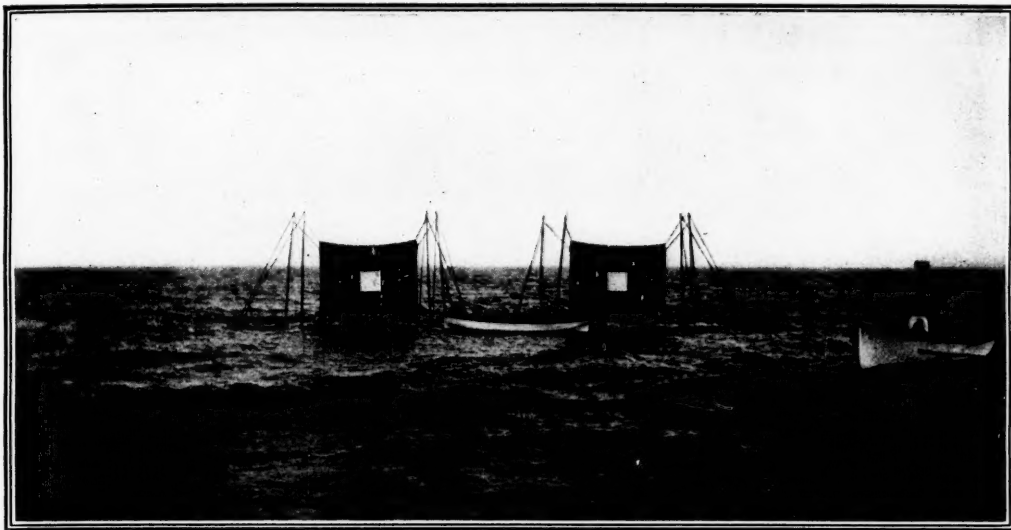
In steaming out, the formation is usually in column, with the flagship leading and the others in their allotted positions, about four hundred yards apart. When the fleet is well out, signal after signal is shown and repeated, and the ships begin to twist and turn in all directions. The old formation is abandoned and a new one accomplished.

At an unexpected moment the signal for full speed ahead for a mile or two may be given. Then there is great excitement, for the race will go, not to the speediest ship, but to the one that chances to be best prepared,—that is to say, the one that is at the time carrying the greatest steam pressure. This is a good test of the efficiency of the engineer's department. After the race, the ships again fall into position and fleet evolutions are resumed.

These maneuvers are not accomplished without danger, especially when they are executed in heavy weather, for a failure to properly read a signal, a mishap to a ship's steering gear, or a slight mishandling of a ship may result in the loss of one or more of the \$5,000,000 fighting

machines and many valued lives. For, remember, the ships during fleet maneuvers usually steam at 10 knots and are seldom more than 400 yards apart, and often are much closer when twisting and turning rapidly into new formations. But they accustom officers and men to danger, and help to fit them to meet any emergency that may arise in time of battle, when everything may depend upon the prompt execution of a maneuver ordered by the commanding officer, whose signals at such a time may be extremely difficult to catch. All maneuvers that might be practicable in battle are tried again and again, so that any of the various formations may be accomplished rapidly.

Steaming from one port to another, formation is usually in column. The flagship leads, followed by the battleships, armored cruisers, second-class cruisers, destroyers, monitors, torpedo-boats, colliers, and supply ships. With the ships maintaining the 400 yards' distance, the column is sometimes five miles long. But more impressive is the battle formation, where the destroyers are flung far out in a semi-circle, protecting the advance of the heavier ships, and are followed by the cruisers; next comes the



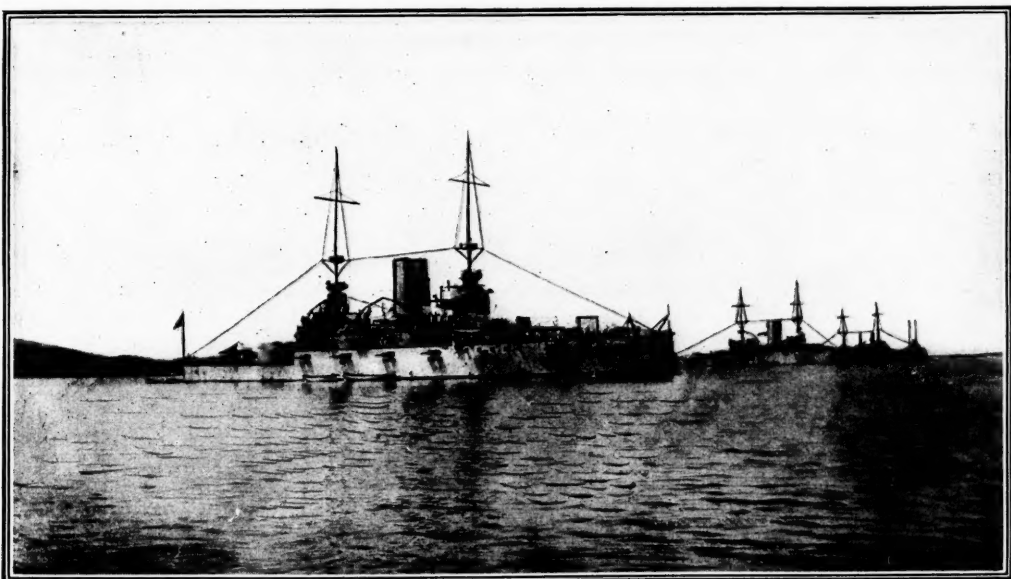
A NAVAL TARGET, SHOWING WORK DONE BY THE "ALABAMA'S" 6-INCH GUN.

broad line of battleships, followed, in turn, by the monitors and the torpedo flotilla, with the colliers and supply ships clustered in the rear.

The invention of a new system of training for gun-pointers, the secrets of which are carefully guarded, and which has led to the abandonment of the sub-caliber gun practice, has improved marksmanship in our navy almost beyond the hope of the most ardent officers and

men, certainly beyond the expectation of the majority, and improved ammunition hoists and breech mechanisms have greatly increased rapidity of fire. To-day, the records of our ships for rapidity and accuracy of fire are the envy of the navies of the world.

In former times, target practice was chiefly confined to shooting at a barrel or buoy with sub-caliber guns, with occasional shots with the



A DIVISION OF BATTLESHIP SQUADRON UNDER ADMIRAL BARKER.



ON THE BRIDGE OF THE "ALABAMA" DURING EVOLUTIONS, SHOWING CAPTAIN REEDER, SIGNAL OFFICER, AND SIGNAL BOY.

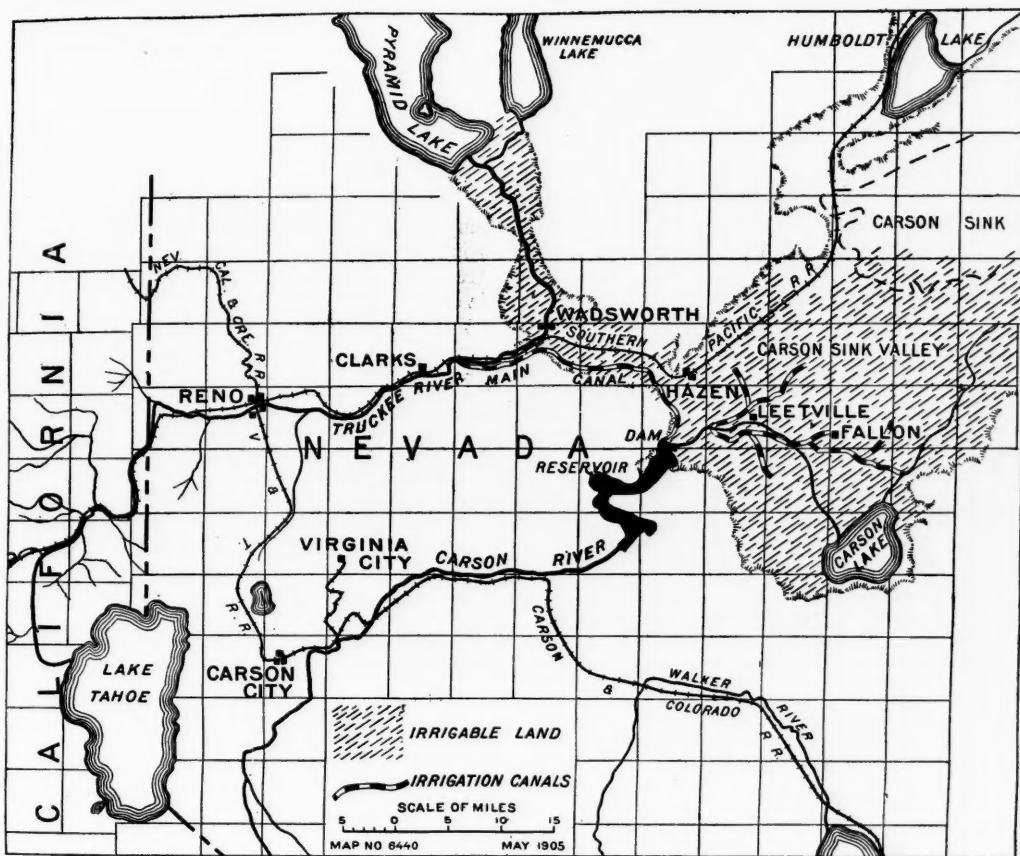
regulation projectile and a reduced powder charge. Observation launches were stationed comparatively near to the target to judge and record the shots. Under the new system, the gun-pointers get almost constant training, but without any waste of ammunition. Then when the time comes for the annual target practice, the regulation ammunition is used in all except the very largest guns, and in these the powder charge is only slightly reduced.

The range is laid out in the form of an equilateral triangle, the target marking the apex and the angle of the base being indicated by flag buoys. For guns of six inches and over, the triangle is 1,500 yards on a side, and the target is 16 feet high and 22 feet long. For guns under six inches, the side of the triangle is 1,000 yards, and the target is reduced one-half in height. Practice is had with but one gun at a time, and as each gun and gun crew has its turn at the target, it requires from a week to ten days, even in the most favorable weather, for each battleship or big cruiser to finish its turn on the range.

The test is for rapidity of fire as well as for

accuracy, therefore firing must begin and cease at given signals as the ship steams at 10 knots along the base of the triangle. In the case of 13-inch guns, the time limit is 5 minutes. A few years ago, this time limit would have admitted of but one or, at the most, two shots. The record to-day is 11 shots, and scores of 9 or 10 shots within the 5 minutes are common. The record for 13-inch gun speed and accuracy is 11 shots and 10 hits. This was made under exceptionally favorable weather conditions in Manila Bay. This loading record was equaled during the recent target practice off Pensacola; but, owing to the roughness of the sea, there was a considerable deficiency in point of accuracy.

Target practice is expensive, the cost of each shot from a 13-inch gun being about \$500, but the public has no cause to grudge the expenditure. Such work as our men are doing makes for peace; but if our navy is ever again called into action, the expenditures made now for target practice will be saved to the nation a thousand times over, for upon the efficiency of our gunners depends to a great extent the safety of our ships and all that that implies.



MAP OF THE TRUCKEE-CARSON IRRIGATION PROJECT, NEVADA.

AN OBJECT-LESSON IN IRRIGATION.

THE GREAT TRUCKEE-CARSON SYSTEM.

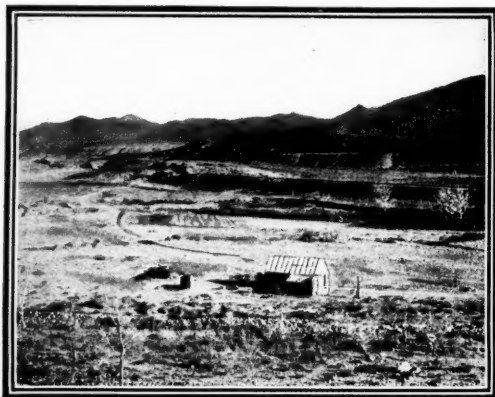
BY CLARENCE J. BLANCHARD.

(Statistician, United States Geological Survey.)

THE national-irrigation movement, which has been steadily growing for several years, finally crystallized into the Reclamation Act passed by Congress on June 17, 1902, an act which President Roosevelt declares is one of the great steps, not only in the forward progress of the United States, but of all mankind.

The operations of the Reclamation Service, a bureau created by the Secretary of the Interior out of the hydrographic branch of the United States Geological Survey, have expanded rapidly. Notwithstanding the magnitude of the

works projected, the vast area of the country investigated, and the innumerable questions of detail, organization, and administration, actual construction is now under way on seven large projects, and on one of these, in Nevada, has progressed to a point where fifty thousand acres of land will be supplied with water and formally opened to the public on June 17, 1905, the third anniversary of the Reclamation Act. The event is to be properly celebrated in the presence of distinguished scientists, engineers, legislators, and hundreds of settlers.



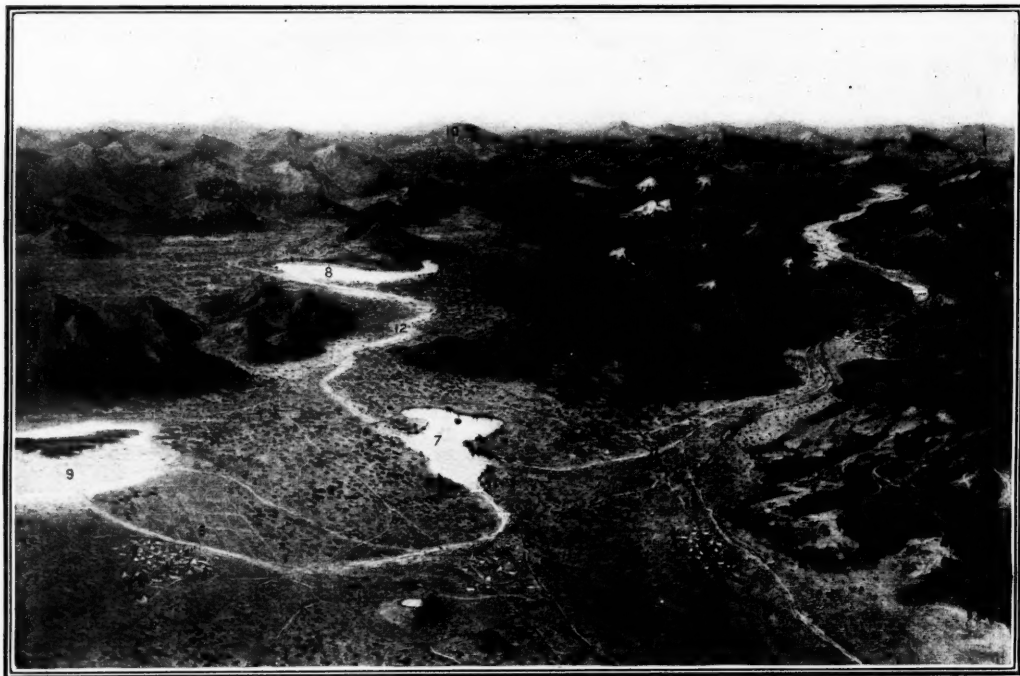
HIGH-LINE CANAL OF THE TRUCKEE-CARSON PROJECT.

Especial interest attaches to the Truckee-Carson project in Nevada, partly because it is the first actual demonstration of the Reclamation Act, and also by reason of the fact that it includes the largest body of public land embraced in any of the several irrigation projects. The Truckee-Carson system is only a part of the great scheme which is being undertaken for Ne-

vada. In their entirety the vast plans involve the expenditure of \$9,000,000 and the intensive cultivation of 350,000 acres of land.

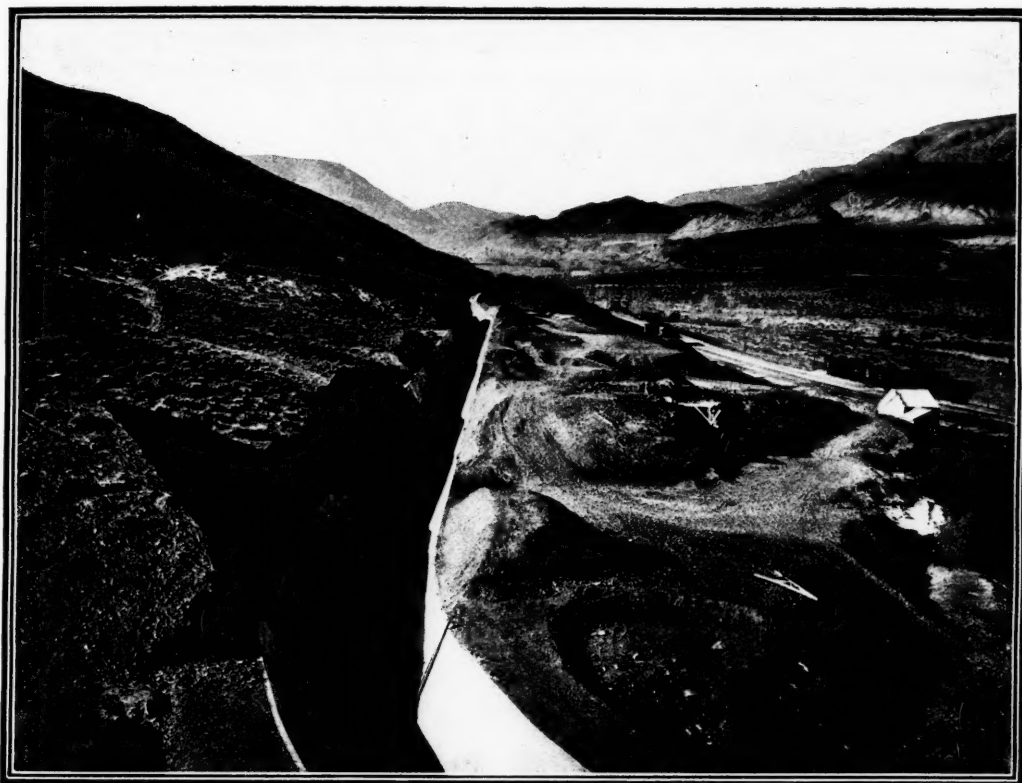
Not less interesting than the splendid achievement of the government engineer, L. H. Taylor, who is responsible for this work, is the locality in which he is constructing it. The reclaimed area is situated in the bed of ancient Lake Lahontan, which in recent geologic times occupied many of the valleys of northwestern Nevada. It is a region at present which must be compared with the parched and desert areas of Arabia and the shores of the Dead Sea and Caspian, but which when irrigated will rival in productiveness any valley in the temperate zone.

The Truckee and Carson rivers rise on the eastern slopes of the forest-clad Sierra Nevada Mountains in California, and flow in a general northeasterly direction into Nevada. The drainage basin of the former contains a number of beautiful lakes,—Lake Tahoe being the most important,—all of which are to be utilized for flood storage. In Nevada these rivers flow for some distance parallel to each other, and at one point not more than twenty miles apart. The Truckee River then veers sharply northward, emptying



A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE TERRITORY COVERED BY THE TRUCKEE-CARSON PROJECT.

- (1, Reno, Nevada; 2, diversion dam in Truckee; 3, Wadsworth; 4, Hazen; 5, Leetville; 6, Fallon and canals; 7, Carson Reservoir; 8, Upper Carson Reservoir; 9, Carson Sink; 10, Virginia City; 11, Truckee canals; 12, Carson River; 13, Soda Lake,—this lake has made its own cone.)



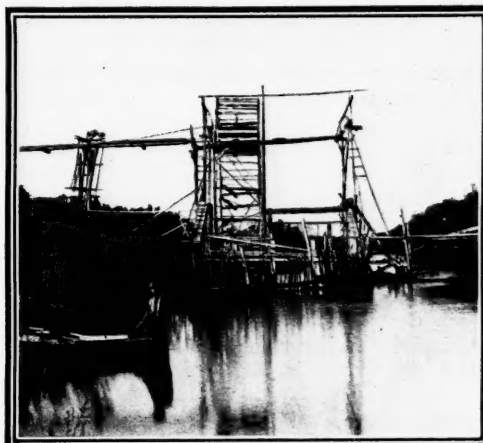
THE CEMENT-LINED CANAL OF THE TRUCKEE-CARSON PROJECT.

into Pyramid and Winnemucca lakes, and the Carson River, separating into three channels, ultimately disappears into Carson Sink.

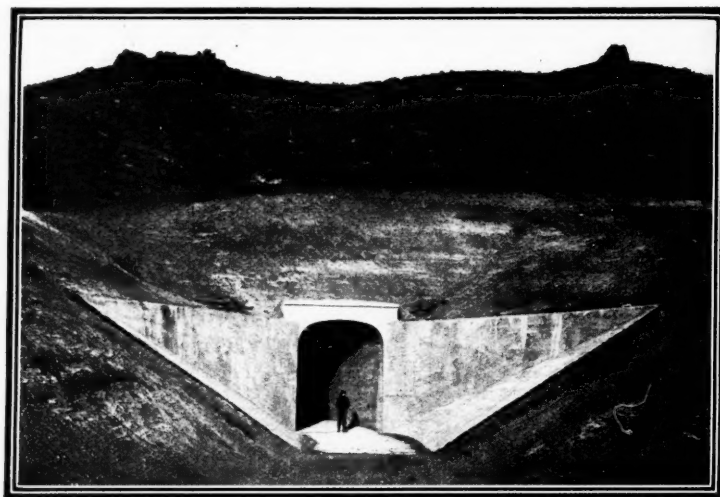
Engineer Taylor conceived the plan of carrying the waters of Truckee River over into the Carson drainage, and by means of a diversion dam and a large canal thirty-one miles in length successfully accomplished it. Truckee River now empties into Carson River, the point of union being in a long depression of the valley of the latter, which has been converted into a reservoir with a capacity of 286,000 acre-feet. Four miles below the reservoir, and above the three forks of the Carson, another diversion dam directs the combined flow into two large canals, one on each side of the river, which are the feeders for a distributing system of ditches hundreds of miles in length.

Under these comprehensive plans, flood-waters which for ages have passed unutilized into sinks to evaporate now render fertile thousands of farms, while the depressions themselves, drained and laid out into farms, will soon support in comfort hundreds of families.

As drainage is almost as essential as irrigation in the valley, owing to the quantities of salts deposited in the soils of the old lake bed, the river channels in their lower reaches are to



A PIONEER'S IRRIGATION PLANT.



ONE OF THE NUMEROUS GOVERNMENT TUNNELS IN NEVADA.

be used as drainage canals, carrying the surplus and seepage waters far out into the desert. Their tortuous courses have been straightened, their beds deepened and broadened in places, and narrowed in others, until the configuration of the delta has been greatly altered.

Viewed from an elevation, the government works remind one of a gigantic octopus, its body being the vast reservoir from which, radiating in all directions, distributing canals reach out like tentacles to embrace every farm in the valley.

The lands in the Truckee-Carson valleys, as shown by careful analyses extending over a period of years, are strongly fertile, rich in the necessary elements of plant food, and adapted to the successful production of a wide variety of crops. From experiments conducted by the Department of Agriculture, it is shown that these valleys are especially favorable, when irrigated, to the cultivation of fodder crops, which will promote animal and dairy industries. On account of cold nights, the region is not suitable for corn, but is adapted to the growing of hardy fruits, such as apples, plums, pears, peaches, grapes, and berries, while oats, potatoes, and alfalfa are the principal crops. Sugar beets will certainly do well in this section.

A careful study of the climatology of this region destroys the popular but erroneous impression that it is unfit for civilization. Briefly stated, the climate is extremely arid, and is distinguished by a short cool summer and a long mild winter. Evaporation is rapid, so also is

the radiation of heat after sunset. The contrast between the records of the dry and wet bulb thermometers is great, and although the ordinary thermometer often registers a temperature of over 100 degrees, the actual sensible heat felt by man is lower than the summer temperature of New England. Nights are invariably cool, and frost is apt to occur in the higher parts of the region any day in the year.

The mineral wealth of Nevada is beyond all question, and it is safe to predict that with irrigation the agricultural products of this region will find a profitable home market, and will

largely promote the exploitation and development of the mineral resources.

Under the provisions of the Reclamation Act, the farm units under this project are limited to forty and eighty acres, the lesser areas being located near the towns, three of which have been established since the work began.

Any citizen of the United States who has attained the age of majority, and who has not exhausted his homestead right, may take up a homestead under this project, under the provisions of the homestead law and the Reclamation Act. No payment for the land is required beyond the cost of filing and recording,—about \$15. Each entryman is required by law to take water from the government irrigation system, and to pay in annual installments not exceeding ten, the proportionate amount charged against the land included in his entry. In the Nevada project, this amount is \$26 per acre, payable \$2.60 per acre each year for ten years without interest. Title to the land does not pass to the settler until the entire charges are paid and at least half of the total irrigable area of his land is reclaimed for agriculture. Failure to pay any two payments when due renders an entry subject to cancellation, with forfeiture of all rights, as well as all money paid. Entries cannot be commuted, and actual and continuous residence is required.

Lands in this valley now under irrigation from private ditches are held at \$75 to \$200 per acre, and the annual products average in value from \$15 to \$50 per acre.

PHILADELPHIA'S CIVIC OUTLOOK.

BY JOSEPH M. ROGERS.

FOR full forty years the civic administration of Philadelphia has been very much in the public eye. It used to be the "Gas Ring," which was as much talked about as Tammany Hall. That reign came to an end almost twenty years ago, when what is commonly called "the Bullitt bill" went into effect. This was an entirely new charter, drawn by an eminent lawyer, into which were supposedly injected the very best elements of administrative potentiality as exemplified by experience in this country and in Europe. The mayor, who before had been simply chief of police, was made the controlling force in municipal government. Elected by the people, he had, through his appointments, practically absolute control over every city department. It was intended to give him all power, and thus hold him to a stricter accountability. To the two branches of councils were left the raising of taxes and appropriation of moneys, and to the upper branch was given the power to veto appointments. It was also provided that there be erected a civil-service system which should curb the mayor in attempting a personal domination of affairs.

All restrictions have amounted to nothing. Councils have been in almost every case willing tools of mayors, appointments have almost invariably been approved, while the civil-service regulations are a farce. The mayor has had just exactly as much power as he has chosen to exercise. Some mayors have been moderate in their rule, and some have been arbitrary to an extent that would make an autocrat envious. To the Gas Ring succeeded a triumvirate, which was followed by the so-called "Hog Combine" of ward leaders, and finally the present organization, whose grip is apparently the strongest of all. The mayor was in or out of these combinations as he chose, but he has never very vigorously fought them. Originally, there were three great departments. The Department of Public Safety included the fire and police bureaus; that of Public Works looked after the streets, gas, water, construction, and the like. Each of these had a director. The public charities were in commission until recently, when a director was placed over them, and finally a purchasing agent for city supplies was made a director and a full member of the cabinet.

The upper branch of councils consists of one member from each ward; the lower, of mem-

bers according to assessed voters. Recently, the lower body became so unwieldy that it has been cut down one-half. At present, councils are almost without exception under the control of the "organization," composed of five or six Republican leaders, with Israel W. Durham at their head. There is no politics in councils, and of late there has been only the very slightest opposition to any measure that has been indorsed by the "organization." Bills are passed in short order, very often without the slightest debate. Philadelphia no longer has what may be termed a deliberative assembly.

THE GAS LEASE AND "THE ORGANIZATION."

Eight years ago, the city gas works, which had shown a constant deficit, were leased to the United Gas Improvement Company for thirty years, with a possibility of termination in ten years, after paying the cost of improvements, the company paying the city ten cents a thousand feet for a term of years, running up to twenty-five cents before the end of the lease. The city may remit this to the consumers, but, so far, has kept it. Recently the leaders of the organization who originally fought the lease have secured from the company an offer to pay twenty-five million dollars down in payment of all rebates and a long extension of the lease. A new corporation has offered what appear to be much more favorable terms. As this is written it appears that the organization will secure the passage of the United Gas Improvement bill without modification. The mayor is opposed to it, but it can be easily passed over his veto. This issue bulks large in the public mind. It may lead to a political revolt. If some new arrangement is not made, taxes soon must be raised, and that is what the organization seeks to avoid. Public improvements are needed, and the city is close to the limit of its borrowing capacity. A proposal to postpone the gas matter entirely is urged by many as the best solution of the issue.

THE "RIPPER" BILLS.

Interest in the city has been stimulated by the remarks of many publicists concerning the character of the administration. Much of the criticism has come from outside, but a great deal of it from prominent people in the city. The climax came in April, when the Legislature passed

three bills amendatory of the charter which greatly affected the administration of the city. The first bill took away from the mayor and gave to councils in joint session the power to elect the directors of Public Works and Public Safety. In other words, the mayor is no longer to have control of the police or fire departments; neither is he to have any control over city contracts for construction, or for keeping the streets cleaned or paved, or for distributing the water. The only potentialities which he preserves,—because the governor refused to sign the bills depriving him of them,—are through his appointments of directors of public charities and of supplies, neither of which is of vast importance, and both of which are, as we have seen, recent offices. The mayor is shorn of his power, and becomes hereafter a respectable figurehead at twelve thousand dollars a year, while his subordinates, over whom he has no control, do all the work and may thwart his desires at every turn. It will be interesting to discover what sort of man will accept such a position.

Because this so-called "ripper" bill has been signed by the governor, he has been greatly abused by newspapers and others. The governor pointed out that the legislators from the city, and, in fact, from the whole State, were practically unanimous for the measures; but he vetoed two of them, and expressed a wish that he could have vetoed one-half of the first, so as to give the mayor the police power. In his message on the subject he went into the history of civil government in a fine literary vein, citing instances all the way from Jacob and Esau to modern times, and including a quotation from Pope. As the changes do not go into effect for almost two years, repeal is possible, though not probable.

THE PROBABLE OUTCOME.

It is of interest to see just what these changes will mean, supposing they be finally carried out. In the first place, it would seem as if an organization which could elect a mayor might find a mayor that would suit it quite as well as two directors. This has not been the case. There have been many rival interests of late. The organization (which, by the way, is the term always used in speaking of those in control) did not get along with the last mayor. It was not in control when the previous mayor was elected. The present mayor does not satisfy it, and it is hard to find whom he does satisfy, since he is at alternate moments called, by public censors, a tool of the ring and a foe of the organization. He is an English-born young man, and it is an open secret that though he was expected to suit those

who politically made him, he has not done so, and the "ripper" bills were passed to prevent another such failure. The point is made that a mayor with power can always set up in business for himself, as some have done, while directors chosen by councils can be handled effectively.

So far as legislation is concerned, it is not likely that the new system will affect the conduct of affairs very greatly. Those who oppose the present organization say it is the worst that ever existed in the history of the world, and that a revolution is necessary to secure an improvement. In any event, if this is so it is hard to see just where the situation has been changed for the worse. With a bad mayor and good councils, the situation would be improved. With bad councils and a good mayor, the situation would be virtually unchanged. It is agreed by many of the ablest and best men of the city, those who have for years given of their time and money for the betterment of any good cause, that there is a chance of better things under the new régime. It is certain that some who have most loudly objected to it are practical politicians, who fear that here is a chance to split the organization and make a new deal possible.

Those who believe that the situation is somewhat better, and at most no worse, do not base their opinions upon the abstract question of a system. They have seen the best system fail in achieving what was so fondly hoped. They see in the possibility of electing new and better councilmen a better chance for reform than in a contest over the mayoralty. Partisan lines are strong in the city, and it has been many years since a Democrat has been elected to city office, no matter what the issue or the relative qualifications of opposing candidates. There is still a desire to maintain party organization for national purposes, so as to "save the tariff" and "keep in line with Washington."

IMPORTANCE OF THE WARD SYSTEM.

But there have often been contests in wards which have resulted surprisingly. In fact, the present organization got into power through a combination of wards which the former gang believed impossible. The ward system counts for more in Philadelphia than in any other American city, for the reason that very largely it represents the old divisions before the city was consolidated, fifty years ago. Then there were some fifteen corporations which were entirely independent. Germantown was as distinct from Philadelphia as Brooklyn from New York before consolidation, or Milwaukee from Chicago to-day. These fifteen or twenty little cities represented, largely, manufacturing foci where, as a rule, a

single interest or a few predominated,—carpets in one section, cotton textiles in another, locomotives and machinery in another. All had distinct social institutions of their own. In course of time all these have been joined together, not only politically, but by extension of municipal improvements, so that the city is fairly compact. But the independent spirit of the localities is largely preserved. Thousands grow up and die in one section without more than an occasional visit, if any, to the center of the city. This tends to conservatism, to a narrowness of perspective, though it is not without its compensations.

A CITY OF HOMES.

There is only one modern flat-house in Philadelphia, perhaps half-a-dozen modern hotels, and no tenements such as all other cities have by the acre. There is no large proletariat in the city, and such as exists is due to the influx of derelicts from abroad. As a rule, the Philadelphian is well employed the year round. There are about three hundred thousand residences in the city,—more than in Greater New York and London combined,—and most of them are owned by the people who live in them. Almost two hundred thousand of them are two-story houses with six or seven rooms and a bath, generally a sizable back yard, and in the newer portions a little front yard and a porch. Mechanics buy these houses through the building associations and mortgages from the trust companies. Such houses cost from two thousand to four thousand dollars apiece,—the latter would seem like mansions to many New Yorkers. They rent at from twelve to twenty-five dollars a month, with an average of about sixteen dollars. Those who are aware of what rents are in other cities can see that in this respect the Philadelphian is much better off than most of his neighbors.

This insularity, due to the original village system, is enhanced by the home feeling. Philadelphians, as a rule, are sober and hard-working men with families. When a man comes home from work it is not necessary to fly to the nearest saloon to get a comfortable place to sit. He has his little parlor, his back yard, or his front step. There are hundreds of miles of streets to be seen on any summer night in Philadelphia where the father and mother sit on the porch or steps and enjoy the sports of the children in the streets. The man does not care for the street corner. The home spirit seems to be dominant. If he were not comfortable at home he would go where he could enjoy himself, and many of them do. But it ought to be plain that people who stick so closely to the hearthstone are more conservative than those who flock out of human

beehives to the streets as soon as they have their meals. The Philadelphian is called slow because he is not prone to run off after some new idea. He is like the farmer in the recesses of his homestead, who ponders before he acts. Because the home is so largely developed, and because the city is composed almost exclusively of native Americans and Germans, the women have a much wider influence in Philadelphia than anywhere else in America, and they exercise it.

CAN HONEST COUNCILMEN BE ELECTED?

Now, this is no argument for or against existing conditions. It is a statement of what is the case. If reform or change is to come, it must be in the light of such facts. There are those who think that a raise in the tax rate is inevitable, and that this will bring about a revolution. It will make the owner and the renter angry, and lead to electing new councilmen, who, being in control of the purse and the sword in the new *régime*, will achieve civic righteousness. They think this easier than electing a mayor under the old rule. It ought to be said, however, that this is not the general view of the press or of those who are best known to the public as political reformers. It is certain that the people of Philadelphia can be stirred up, that they have been, and surely will be once more. But it ought to be said in fairness that there is very little in recent legislation which can have very much effect on the future. A solution of the problem lies deeper than a mere charter change. It is perhaps very unfortunate for Philadelphia that her evil manners have been enshrined in brass, while her virtues are too generally writ in water.

Probably most communities get the sort of government they deserve. It is certain that the great experiment begun almost twenty years ago through "the Bullitt bill" has failed very largely of accomplishing what was fairly expected of it. If the fault lay in the fact that something more is needed than a system, then present criticism, destructive as well as constructive, ought to be directed toward a better way to accomplish the things so desirable. And at the same time it ought to be remembered that there are other sinners in civics, and that if the people of Philadelphia are "corrupt and contented" one may not be the cause of the other. There are more than a million inhabitants of the Quaker City who are quite ignorant of their alleged relative decadence and look with pity upon the condition of those who live in cities which are so highly indorsed by themselves. For it seems certain that the further you get from a city the worse its reputation is.

THE ATLANTIC FISHERIES QUESTION.

I.—A STATEMENT OF NEWFOUNDLAND'S ATTITUDE.

BY P. T. M'GRATH.

(Editor of the St. John's, N. F., *Herald*.)

THE smothering of the Bond-Hay treaty of fishery reciprocity between the United States and Newfoundland by the United States Senate, at the behest of the New England fishing interests, promises to revive in an acute form an imbroglio as grave as the Alaskan boundary dispute. Canada and Newfoundland have been granting American fishermen certain valuable concessions along the Atlantic seaboard during the past fifteen years, a withdrawal of which would be disastrous to them in the pursuit of their occupation.

These liberties include the procuring of bait fishes in the littoral, to be used in luring the larger denizens of the Grand Banks,—the cod, haddock, halibut, and mackerel,—for which bait Newfoundland's coastline is famous; and the trans-shipping privileges somewhat utilized through Canadian ports; while outfitting, crewing, and kindred concessions are obtained from both indifferently.

THE ORIGINAL TREATY RIGHTS.

This Atlantic fisheries question arose from the fact that prior to the War of Independence England dominated the fisheries on the Newfoundland Banks. The American colonies shared in them as her subjects, but in 1775, when the colonies became aggressive, Lord North introduced a bill in Parliament to deprive them of this privilege. France had already been forced from the region, and in 1778, in recognizing the "United States," demanded from them fishing rights on these Grand Banks. The Treaty of Paris, in 1783, which closed the war, restored to the Americans equal fishing rights with British subjects, a condition which prevailed until the War of 1812 abrogated these treaties. At the Peace of Ghent, in 1814, England refused to continue the privileges, so quarrels arose between the rival fishermen, to end which the treaty of 1818 was negotiated,—the root of the difficulty as it exists to-day.

That compact granted United States subjects the rights (1) to fish in the inshore waters of the southwest coast of Newfoundland and the west coast (better known as the "French shore"), the Magdalen Islands, and Labrador; (2) to dry and

cure fish on the uninhabited southwest coast of Newfoundland, and on Labrador, this right to cease on any portion thereof as such became settled unless by agreement with the possessors of the ground; (3) to hold the fishing and drying privileges in common with British subjects.

In return the United States agreed to renounce forever all right to fish within three marine miles of the coast of British North America not included in the foregoing areas, or to enter there for any purpose except wood, water, shelter, or repairs.

RECIPROCITY ARRANGEMENTS.

This clause created the "headland" dispute,—*i.e.*, whether the three marine miles should follow the sinuosities of the coast, as the United States contended, or be measured beyond a line drawn from headland to headland, across the mouths of bays, reserving as territorial waters all within that line, as England maintained. She claimed Fundy Bay, between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, Gaspé Bay, in Quebec, and Fortune Bay, in Newfoundland, as absolutely within her jurisdiction, and seized many United States vessels in subsequent years. In 1839, President Van Buren negotiated for an adjustment of the difficulty, but without result. In 1842, American fishing vessels could not approach within sixty miles of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. In 1847, England permitted United States fishermen to ply their vocation in Fundy Bay, but not as a right. In 1851, Secretary Webster proposed a conference on the subject, which England accepted, and in 1854 was arranged the Elgin-Marcy reciprocity treaty. It gave United States fishermen full privileges with the residents in British American waters, and British American fishermen the same right in United States waters and coasts north of latitude 39, with free entry to many British American products. In 1866, this treaty was abrogated by the United States, but, trouble being renewed, another arrangement was made in 1871,—the Thornton-Fish treaty, by which these inshore fishery privileges were arbitrated upon. In 1877, the arbitration tribunal met at Halifax, and awarded British America \$5,500,000 for granting United States fishermen fifteen years'

fishery privileges, of which sum Canada took \$4,500,000 and Newfoundland \$1,000,000.

Another section of the Washington treaty provided for the famous "bonding privileges," an agreement for the transit in bond of Canadian goods through the United States without paying duty, which is still operative, though the fishery clauses were abrogated by the United States in 1886. The strife between the fishermen was then resumed, and in 1887 Newfoundland sought an arrangement with the Republic, regardless of Canada. England intervened, being then preparing the Chamberlain-Bayard treaty of 1888, which the United States subsequently rejected. It provided for reciprocity in fishery products between the United States and British America; for the former's vessels to enter the latter's waters, practically on the "headland" basis, certain bays up to twenty miles in width, on the British American seaboard, being reserved for British American fishermen. Pending action by the Senate, both sides agreed to a *modus vivendi* for two years, by which United States fishing vessels were granted the foregoing privileges by paying a license fee of \$1.50 per ship ton. This agreement was continued until now, for Canada or Newfoundland could not risk terminating it, as negotiations, in one form or another, were in progress ever since. The failure of that treaty induced Newfoundland to seek again a distinct arrangement, and Mr. (now Sir Robert) Bond, her colonial secretary, framed a compromise with the late Mr. Blaine, known as the "Bond-Blaine" convention, which granted Newfoundland's fishery products free entry to American markets, on United States fishermen being allowed inshore privileges in Newfoundland waters. Canada protested to England that she should have been included, as the pact now prejudicially affected her fishery interests with the United States, and the British Government, owing to Canada's importance, pigeonholed the treaty until Canada had an opportunity to make another. In 1898, the Joint High Commission met to adjust all differences between the United States and British America, but it failed of result, and in 1902 England permitted Sir Robert Bond to revive his suspended arrangement and negotiate the Bond-Hay treaty which Senatorial action recently burked.

THE FISHERY NO LONGER AN AMERICAN INDUSTRY.

The strongest arraignment of fishery reciprocity is that it would ruin the fishing industry of New England. In this the New England fisherfolk rely upon the ignorance of the actual status of the enterprise which prevails in the

United States, and on the plea that it is a nursery for the American navy. This is not so. The fishery is not an American industry in the true sense of the term, for very few Americans are employed in it. It is really the instrument of an offensive and venal monopoly; the American people are needlessly taxed on their fish food to maintain it, and it may now precipitate a dangerous international entanglement. That nine-tenths of the crews of the Gloucester fishing fleet are foreigners is notorious. The fishing fleet would never put to sea if it had to depend upon native-born Americans to man it, for these will no longer take to fishing with less arduous employments available on shore. The crews are chiefly Canadians, Newfoundlanders, Scandinavians, and Portuguese. The Gloucester *News* of recent date, noting the return of the schooner *Aloha*, Capt. John McInnis, "one of the most noted codfish-killers that ever sailed from this port," observes that "the plucky and popular skipper is a native of West Bay, Cape Breton, while his fisher lads are the flower of Shelbourne County, Nova Scotia." Capt. Sol Jacobs, the prototype of "Captains Courageous," is a Newfoundland, and American-born masters are as rare as American-born sailors. The alien-born skippers are supposed to be naturalized, and some are, but this is not indispensable, for a Newfoundland fishing-master was offered a vessel in Gloucester two years ago, and told, "All you've got to do is to go down to the custom-house and swear you're an American citizen."

DECLINE OF THE NEW ENGLAND FISHERIES.

The last canvass of the New England fisheries, made in 1899, published in the United States Fish Commissioner's Report for 1900, shows that the industry suffered a marked decline in ten years, the catch dropping from 653,170,000 to 393,457,000 pounds, or 39.76 per cent. The value only shrunk from \$10,550,000 to \$9,682,000, or 8.23 per cent., so the cost of this fish food to the American people therefore increased 31.53 per cent., though "Yankee" fishermen enjoyed the protection of a tax of $\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound on all alien-caught fish. Says the report:

The fishing vessels of Massachusetts decreased 199, or 24 per cent., in number, and \$1,332,320, or 43 per cent., in value. The net tonnage has also decreased 48 per cent. An instance of the gradual decrease in vessels during the past ten years is furnished by the fishing fleet of Gloucester, Mass. From July, 1897, to November 15, 1898, 27 vessels were sold and 24 lost; in the same period, 11 vessels were purchased and 7 built,—the net decrease in the fleet in the $17\frac{1}{2}$ months being 33 vessels. The vessels sold and lost have generally been larger

than those taking their places, and the percentage of decrease in number has, therefore, not been so large as in value and tonnage. The decrease in boats is 25 per cent. in number and 30 per cent. in value, and in the value of the apparatus of capture, 44 per cent.

The truth really is, that the "New England Fisheries," as a fine-sounding phrase, only means nowadays the outfitters and shipowners engaged in the business, who play upon American patriotic sentiment to their own profit, and are even permitted to perpetrate an audacious fraud on the national treasury.

This fraud is effected through the American fishermen doing an extensive trade in herring every winter from Newfoundland. The Fish Commissioner's report, already quoted from, says on this point :

The herring fisheries furnish another instance in which the products are derived largely from waters outside the State jurisdiction, the Newfoundland herring fishery alone yielding about half the entire catch of this species. This fishery is apparently increasing in importance. In 1896, it was engaged in by 43 vessels from Gloucester, 3 from Beverly, and 1 from Provincetown. The quantity of fresh frozen herring and salted herring secured was 8,441,842 pounds, valued at \$117,649 ; and of salted herring, 1,807,575 pounds, valued at \$18,150. In 1898, the fleet had increased to 56 vessels,—51 from Gloucester, 2 from Beverly, and 3 from Boston. The quantity of fresh frozen herring obtained was 9,398,872 pounds, valued at \$197,490 ; and of salted herring, 5,545,199 pounds, valued at \$72,862,—a total of 14,944,071 pounds, valued at \$270,352.

EVADING THE DUTY ON HERRING.

Salted herring are used exclusively for food, and frozen herring also very largely. This herring industry occupies the winter months, when it is too stormy to fish on the Banks. The herring largely resort to the west coast of Newfoundland, and are netted, and salted, or frozen, by the coast folk, and sold to the American vessels, which come for cargoes. The United States fishermen have the treaty right themselves to take the fish there, but cannot do so profitably, and find it cheapest to buy them ; yet on taking them home, enter them as "the product of United States fisheries," and get them admitted free of duty. But if a Newfoundland vessel, with herring from the same place, takes them to the United States, she must pay three-quarters of a cent a pound. Still this fraud is trivial compared with that perpetrated over the herring brought from the southern seaboard, where the United States have no fishing rights. Many of the American vessels procure cargoes there. In this region United States vessels cannot fish at all, of right, but secure permits from the colonial government to purchase cargoes of herring, as on the western shore. Yet these fish, of

which there is not a pretense that they have been taken by American fishermen, or in American waters, are also granted free entry to the United States markets, while herring from the same nets, conveyed there in Newfoundland bottoms, are obliged to pay the duty. On the total shipments of Newfoundland herring in 1898, as given above, the duty would be \$112,000. The Treasury Department sent an agent to Newfoundland in 1895, who investigated the whole matter, and the department attempted to collect the duties, but the fishing interests involved had sufficient influence to procure the overruling of this decision and a continuance of the existing practice, which prevails to this day, and robs the United States Treasury of at least \$100,000 a year.

SHUTTING US OUT FROM NEWFOUNDLAND WATERS.

For the right to carry on this herring business the Newfoundlanders make no charge, though these are the only waters where herring are obtained in the winter. Part of the frozen-herring output goes to bait the Gloucester vessels fishing on the southern Banks, and in April these come north, when Newfoundland enforces the *modus vivendi*, and compels them to pay license fees ere they can obtain bait, outfits, or crews. The Bond-Hay treaty having failed, it is urged that not alone should the *modus vivendi* be abolished, but that the Americans should be deprived of the food-herring fishery privileges besides. They would thus be thrown back upon the treaty of 1818, the concessions under which are comparatively valueless to them now. When it was drafted there were large fisheries in the St. Lawrence Gulf, upon which the west coast fronts. At present the chief fishing is done on the Grand Banks, off the eastern coast ; the western seaboard, being remote from that, is worthless to the Americans even with its treaty rights, they having to rely for bait and landfall on the eastern shore, where they have no status except such as the *modus vivendi* grants them. Clearly, then, if that is canceled, they will be shut out from Newfoundland waters and deprived of all privileges, as theirs is a deep-sea fishery ; and as bait and outfits are necessary for the success of the enterprise, exclusion from these waters must leave them helpless and cripple their industry. These conditions also apply, though in a less degree, to the Canadian seaboard, as the bait supply there is small and the coast much farther from the Banks than Newfoundland, so the latter country holds the key to the whole position and overshadows Canada in the effecting of any arrangement. This she can do because she is an independent,

autonomous country, having an equal voice in the matter with Canada, and being able to veto any proposal not acceptable to herself.

If the Newfoundland government were to enforce its renowned Bait Act against the Americans, as it does against the French, and forbid its own fishermen to sell them herring for food or bait, the death-knell of the New England deep-sea fishing industry would be sounded. Though theoretically the Americans can fish on the western coast, it does not pay them in actual practice to attempt it. They only seek in the inshore waters bait or food herring. To capture these requires special appliances. The American fishing industry now is essentially a deep-sea one, and the apparatus employed therein is totally unsuited to the catching of bait. Thus, for the latter task an apparatus would have to be carried, not alone useless, but very inconvenient to the main enterprise. This increases the condition of dependence of the United States fishermen on Newfoundland in their annual seafaring operations.

A POSSIBLE INTERNATIONAL DISPUTE.

What invests this difficulty with special seriousness is that it may provoke an awkward complication between Great Britain and the United States. The New England fishermen try to deceive the American statesmen with the idea that the rejection of the Bond-Hay treaty disposes of the matter quietly, and for all time, as Newfoundland, finding she cannot obtain reciprocity, will accept the inevitable and allow the present state of things to continue. The very

contrary will result. The action of the United States Senate only serves to revive a contention the most vexatious that the British and American governments have had to deal with since the birth of the Republic. In a word, it will provoke a recrudescence of the Atlantic fisheries dispute, with all its prospects of embittering the relations between the two countries and bringing about such an international deadlock as would be regrettable at any time, but must become doubly unfortunate at the present juncture, when John Bull and Uncle Sam are on such satisfactory terms otherwise, as we see them to be.

The advocates of American "rights" seem to disregard the British position altogether, and forget that the compromise by which United States vessels now obtain bait and other concessions in these waters is merely a temporary one, arranged in 1888 for two years only, but renewed from season to season by Canada and Newfoundland in the hope of an abiding agreement being completed, though terminable by one or both of them at any time when it seemed evident that such an understanding was not possible. The steady refusal of the United States Senate to treat with Canada demonstrates that there is no hope of a compromise being reached in that quarter, and the rejection of the Newfoundland pact means that Britain and America will have another vexatious complication on their hands.

[NOTE.—Since this article was put in type the Newfoundland Legislature has enacted a law canceling the privileges hitherto enjoyed by the American fishermen under the *modus vivendi* and restricting them to their treaty rights alone.]

II.—THE AMERICAN VIEW.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

IT is not fair to New England, or true to recorded facts, to say that New England influence, and the influence of one single industry at that, has now alone defeated the plan, long cherished by far-seeing men, of reciprocity with Newfoundland. The Hay-Bond treaty in the form in which the United States Senate recently considered it was acceptable to the Maine and Massachusetts fishing interests. It had been so modified that cured and preserved fish was no longer on the free list, but fresh fish, uncured, was non-dutiable. This was not all that Newfoundland had desired, but it was an important concession to the ancient colony, for the fresh fish of Canada pays, in the United States, a

duty of three-fourths of a cent or a cent a pound. To admit cured and preserved fish also free of duty would inevitably transfer the packing establishments of the New England coast to Newfoundland, with its cheap labor, and thus destroy, not only the calling of those New Englanders who catch fish from the sea, but the calling of those who, on the land, put this fish through processes akin to manufacturing.

There are one hundred thousand persons in Maine and Massachusetts who are dependent, directly or indirectly, on the ocean fisheries. New England was willing to yield something for the certain commercial, and the possible political, advantages of reciprocity with New-

foundland. But New England was not willing to yield everything, to reduce a hundred thousand of her people to ruin, and to see her fishing fleets vanish like her deep-sea merchant fleets.

That was too much to ask; the price was excessive and intolerable. As the event proved, the only real concession to Newfoundland in the entire treaty was this concession of free fresh fish by the New England fishing interests. No other industry in competitive trade would grant anything at all. Yet so frank and genuine was the New England desire for reciprocity with Newfoundland that, in spite of the fact that the only real sacrifice on the American side of the treaty was made by New England interests, the only voices raised in the Senate for the treaty when the time for action came were the voices of Senator Hale, of Maine, and Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts, champions of the fishermen and sailors of these two ocean commonwealths.

OPPOSED BY SOUTH AND WEST.

The treaty was torn to pieces, not by New England, but by the South and West. Senator after Senator arose to object to this or that clause and to demand consideration for his State's coal or iron interests or agriculture. Very soon the fisheries were forgotten. New England had made her concession all in vain; the treaty was doomed to rejection in any event. Maryland and Alabama and Minnesota did not know or care anything about the "French Shore;" they did not care whether Newfoundland was British or American; there was no appeal to them in the "larger statesmanship." They simply did not mean to have Newfoundland competing with their mines and farms, and after the first day's debate it was manifest that the Hay-Bond treaty and the fine hopes which inspired it awoke almost no response away from the North Atlantic coast line.

It is, therefore, a strangely illogical course which the Newfoundland government has seized of "punishing New England" for the rejection of the treaty. New England, as a matter of fact, seems to be almost the only section where the treaty has won any considerable interest and favor. Unquestionably, if Sir Robert Bond and his colleagues enforce the Bait Act against the Americans as they have long enforced it against the French, a serious blow will be dealt to the fishermen of Maine and Massachusetts. The Newfoundland threat to confiscate every American schooner found within the three-mile limit unless she can show that she did not procure her bait and supplies within the colony,—thus reversing an historic principle of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence and assuming that the accused are

guilty until they can prove innocence,—is a procedure more worthy of Fiji or Patagonia than of an English-speaking community in the North Atlantic. But it is altogether premature to boast that even this will destroy the New England fisheries. Our New England sea-folk are shrewd and tenacious men. Already schooners are being equipped with special appliances to catch their own bait, while long-mooted plans of supplying the fleets at sea from steam tenders may now be attempted. Newfoundland must not forget that there was never a commercial war which did not cut both ways. There will be desperate poverty on her coasts if her people are forbidden to sell their bait to the only fishermen who have the means to buy it.

THE VALUE OF THE FISHERIES.

Just as ill-founded as the assertion that New England alone killed the reciprocity treaty is the further statement that the New England fisheries are a fraud and a delusion,—that they are American only in name, and that the complete obliteration of this historic industry would be no loss to commerce or naval strength. The statistics of the New England fisheries show that a large majority of the men engaged in this calling are thorough Americans, native or naturalized. Nearly all of the seventeen thousand fishermen of Maine are native-born,—and it must be remembered that if foreign-caught fish crowd our markets the loss falls upon the boat-fishermen and the smaller craft as well as on the "Bankers."

Canada has taken the \$5,500,000 of the Halifax Award and turned its income into subsidies and bounties to her fishermen. The British Government, for the sake of its naval reserve, is fostering in every possible way the fishermen of Newfoundland. Meanwhile, six hundred men desert from our North Atlantic squadron at a single port because we are following Russia's blind policy and endeavoring to man our warships with men who lack that prime requisite of a sailor, the "sea habit." New England has stood by while her merchant ships have disappeared. She has lost most of her merchant seamen,—the best seamen that ever served in peace or war.

Is it strange that New England clings to her fisheries and is reluctant to part with her schooners and her crews, even for the benefit of Nova Scotia and of Newfoundland? She was willing to make a concession for the sake of the reciprocity treaty, and she did so,—the only real concession granted by any industry or any section. But sacrifice her fisheries she will not. Nor will the rest of the country ask it or permit it.

THE AMERICAN ACADEMY IN ROME.

BY F. D. MILLET.

FOR nine years the American Academy of Fine Arts in Rome has carried on its work quietly and without ostentation. The results have not only justified the cost of the experiment, but have established the fact of its great utility,—of its necessity, indeed, in the development of a high standard of taste and accomplishment among our artists. Its recent incorporation by act of Congress, the purchase of a villa for its permanent home in Rome, and the raising of a large endowment fund for its maintenance have called public attention to its existence and have stimulated public interest in its aims and its purposes. With the rise of this interest comes, naturally, the accompanying desire to know what has been done by it, and what it proposes to do, in the way of art education. Without going into details, it may be said that during the few years of its existence the Academy has chiefly devoted itself to the administration of a certain number of scholarships in architecture, sculpture, and painting, and has given to the beneficiaries in each of these branches the advantages of a residence in Rome, studios and other facilities for the pursuit of studies, and a limited but effective supervision or direction of these studies. The students who have gone through the regular courses and have profited by the immeasurable advantages of constant association with the great masterpieces of ancient art under competent and intimate direction have met with appreciative recognition on their return to this country, and by their success as artists have encouraged the continuance of the Academy, even under adverse conditions, until it has at last passed the experimental stage and is established on a permanent basis.

The Academy was started by a group of artists shortly after the close of the Chicago World's Fair of 1893, and has been supported by them since, sometimes with the assistance of a few friends, but oftener by their own contributions, which have been cheerfully and freely given for the cause of art. The struggle to keep the infant Academy on its feet has been at times severe, but the conviction of its great utility has been a constant stimulus to effort and a warrant for self-sacrifice. The simple statement that a small body of artists have carried this burden for so long a period is in itself sufficient to carry weight as an argument in

favor of that special training which the Academy affords.

THE NEED AS DISCERNED BY AMERICAN ARTISTS.

The project originated in the revival of the forgotten belief in the sound lessons of antique art, which was the most valuable result of the Chicago exhibition; in the revival, after a period of worship of ignorant originality and the perverted spirit of invention in modern art, of a sane and healthful respect and veneration for the masterpieces which have stood the test of time and have remained for centuries superior to caprice and fashion.

This revival was a natural reaction from a long period of almost hysterical scramble for novelty as an important element of value in art. In this period there flourished in a popular degree the apostles of intuition in art, the prophets of the easy way to fame and fortune, the scoffers of training and study. The result is seen in the productions of the period. Governmental architecture degenerated to the Mullett type, sculpture became anecdotal, historical painting had no followers, and mural decoration was a lost art. It was a widespread belief that knowledge fettered genius, that the artistic temperament was stifled if it was submitted to any rigorous training, that there were no rules and no canons of art except those which each individual in his heaven-born inspiration invented for himself. Meanwhile, the old sacred flame was kept alive by a comparatively small number of men in the artistic professions, and it is due to them that it now burns brightly again.

THE FRENCH INFLUENCE.

Much as we owe to France for her teaching in art, we must confess that from her came also the spirit of iconoclasm, which has long been the artist's bane. From her, in spite of the strong element of conservatism, which has fought a good fight for the old standards, came the adoration of originality, of novelty in technique, the indifference to idea and to ideals. The result has been, in France, that art has confessedly degenerated; witness the decorations in the Hotel de Ville, which as a lesson in discord runs a close second to the Congressional Library; witness, also, the annual exhibitions of the two salons.

We in this country have not advanced in art

as fast or as far as the talents of our young artists promised. Of the multitudes who have studied abroad, of the large number who have gained honors in the schools and the exhibitions there, a very small proportion have made good their reputation. It has long been remarked that the young men who have shown great brilliancy abroad seem to have lost their grip shortly after they returned home. This has been a strong argument, and one which has been used to some purpose, against the establishment of traveling scholarships. The reason for this falling from grace has been commonly attributed to the character of the art atmosphere, which is said to exist in an attenuated degree, if it really does exist at all; it has been attributed to the commercial spirit of the age, which has swamped every sentiment to which art can hope to appeal; it has been charged also to the busy, nervous, bustling life, which leaves no moment free from cares and worries of trivial occupations and makes meditation and quiet study impossible.

DEFECTIVE TRAINING OF OUR YOUNGER ARTISTS.

But the founders of the American Academy in Rome, artists all, discovered the *fons et origo* of the whole difficulty, and they recognized it through their own individual experience. They saw that the whole trouble lay in the training of the young artists, both in the superficial character of it and in the degree of it. The rudiments of the different branches of the artistic profession are taught as effectively in this country as anywhere else, although under somewhat different conditions. When the young artist goes abroad to continue his studies and enters a school there, he practically continues to work in the same direction, advancing only toward a better acquaintance with methods and processes, and not progressing definitely toward the recognition of the great principles which govern all art. This is not surprising, because, in the first place, he seldom stays long enough to emerge from the stage of incubation to that riper period of experience when he has such a command of his tools that he can forget them, when his effort is directed, not toward methods, but toward results, and, in the second place, from his environment, and from the influence of his associates, his ambition is turned toward the speedy achievement of popular success.

One reason for this is that aliens are not permitted to take advantage of the facilities for advanced education in art which are granted to a limited number of students by the different governments, and another reason is that for the most part our students abroad, not provided

with means for further study, even if they had the inclination and opportunity, find it necessary to turn their art to account in earning a livelihood.

Briefly and frankly, then, our young artists are only half educated. In this statement there must be taken into account the fact that they have not had the traditions of art as a birth-right, they have not had the inestimable privilege of intimate acquaintance with the masterpieces which are the glory of European countries, they have not had the stimulus which every foreign artist enjoys,—the consciousness that the profession of art is highly esteemed as an honorable and a worthy pursuit. On this latter point it may be as well to remark, in passing, that one has only to read the newspaper accounts of the presentation of portraits or the unveiling of statues to find out where the artist stands, for his name as the author of the works is rarely, very rarely, printed. Further, in any great function, when the politicians, the soldiers, the educators, the writers, are honored, it is seldom indeed that an artist, because he is an artist, is offered the distinction of an invitation. This may be trivial in weight of argument. Let us consider it only a straw.

THE DEMAND FOR ART CULTURE.

Those who declare that the commercial spirit of the age is responsible for the apparent neglect of art often add to this statement the opinion that art can flourish only in a monarchy. They forget Venice and Florence. Those who see in the busy turmoil of modern life no hope for thoughtful production have forgotten how art flourished in the Elizabethan age. It is not that we do not want art in this country, and the best art there is; our museums and our private collections settle this question at once. It is because we are only just beginning to demand of our artists that they be something more than followers of ephemeral fashions, that they show by their works that they have something in common with the great masters, something more than brush work, or skillful modeling, or the employment of the orders of architecture. They must show that they have ideas, that they have an appreciation of beauty, a love of distinction of style, and a sense of proportion. They must prove in their works that they have so far taken advantage of the accumulated experience of the past that they have instinctively avoided obvious faults, even if they have not actually invested their productions with the most eminent qualities. In fact, what we want in our artists is cultivation. That we must have, as has been well said, as a substitute for tradition.

CLOISTRATION AND TRAVEL.

What the Academy in Rome proposes to do is to provide the opportunity for an artist to cultivate himself,—to give him the advantages of cloistration for a period long enough for him to absorb the ideals of the great art of the past, and to stimulate his imagination and his invention by diligent study and by close acquaintance with the masterpieces with which Rome abounds in overwhelming profusion. Rome has been selected because there, more than in any other place in the world, the allied arts of architecture, sculpture, and painting can be studied to the best advantage and under the most favorable circumstances, and the sister art of music can be studied to great profit. Besides the cloistration, which consists of residence in the villa belonging to the Academy, with the uninterrupted pursuit of studies under competent and sympathetic direction, a certain amount of travel is also an important part of the curriculum. The period of travel varies, of course, according to the branch of the profession. Music, for example, which is one of the departments, as it is in various foreign academies, requires more study away from Rome than the other branches.

ADVICE, DIRECTION, AND STIMULUS.

The American Academy has been established, professedly, on the lines of the French Academy in the Villa Medici, which was founded in 1666, and which numbers in its long roll of honor the names of Duc, Ginain, Labrousse, Daumet, Duban, and Vaudremer among the architects; of David, Houdon, Falguière, Mercié, and Rude among the sculptors; of Boucher, Fragonard, David, Ingres, Flandrin, Baudry, Poussin, Gérôme, Besnard, Dagnan-Bouveret, and Regnault among the painters; of Massenet, Gounod, Meyerbeer, Berlioz, Bizet, Adam, Halévy, Saint-Saëns, and Thomas among the musicians. There is, however, one essential difference in the two institutions. The students in the French Academy carry on their work without supervision, the government relying on their singleness of purpose and their intelligence to follow their own tastes to the best advantage. The results of this system have not been altogether satisfactory, and the American Academy has established, as a principle of its management, that the beneficiaries in the different branches shall be advised and directed in their studies as far as practicable. The best that can be done in art education is to show a student what to look at, how to see, and how to study. The rest he must do for himself. He can be taught the mechanics of the profession. His taste can be developed and stimulated

by calling his attention to the qualities of fine works of art, but no one can teach him to produce those qualities in his own work. He must arrive at it by enriching his mind with the knowledge of what has been done in the past, and by perfect familiarity with the sources of all great art. It is the aim of the American Academy to furnish to the student exactly this kind of stimulus.

It will be understood that the course is, so to speak, a post-graduate one. It is not the province of the Academy to teach the rudiments of art. The beneficiaries will be selected by competition from among the best in the country, without regard to locality, and with a liberal age limit, so that a class of advanced students may be counted upon. They will receive a subsidy of sufficient amount to free them from the necessity of other pecuniary aid, and the courses of study will be so arranged that at the end of the period the student will at least have had the opportunity of developing everything there is in him which makes for progress in his profession.

AMERICA NO LONGER NEGLECTFUL OF ART.

It will doubtless be some years before the influence of the Academy will be felt as an important factor in the art of America. We are building for the future, and not for the present alone. The demand for competent and skillful, trained and cultivated, architects, sculptors, and painters increases with great rapidity. Sixteen cities in the United States are engaged in municipal improvements by the erection of monumental public buildings and by the orderly rearrangement of streets and avenues. Scarcely an edifice of any importance is now planned without consideration of its probable embellishment by sculpture and color decoration. The art treasures of the world are pouring into the country from the west and from the east in inconceivable profusion. This does not look as if art were being neglected. Perhaps it is the artists who are neglecting art.

Charles Gounod, who was a student in the French Academy in Rome when it was under the direction of Ingres, testified in his "*Mémoires d'un Artiste*" to the great advantages of study there, and in one sentence epitomized the sentiments of those who enjoyed the privileges of the institution. He wrote: "Let us guard with all our strength that sacred retreat which shelters the artist's growth, far away from an early subjection to the material needs of life, and fortifies him against the temptations of commercialism as well as against the commonplace triumphs of an ignoble and ephemeral popularity."

AMERICAN "RHODES SCHOLARS" AT OXFORD.

BY PAUL NIXON.

(Rhodes Scholar from Connecticut.)

[Under the terms of the bequest made by Cecil J. Rhodes, there are now in residence at Oxford University, England, forty-three American students who competed successfully last year in the examinations for scholarships. All but five of the States and Territories of the Union are thus represented. One of these American Rhodes Scholars, a grandson of Bishop Andrews, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and a graduate of the Wesleyan University, at Middletown, Conn., sets forth in the following letter some of his impressions after a term's residence at Balliol College. It will be noted that his comments are restricted, in the main, to a comparison of the scholastic equipment of the English Oxonians with that of their American colleagues. Other considerations might tend to modify Mr. Nixon's very generous concessions of superiority to the British students.]

IF one were to form his conclusions concerning Oxford life from the observation of Oxonians during a single term, and that the first, of "residence," those conclusions would inevitably be that wining, dining, and athletics were the English undergraduate's vocation, and his use of books and dons an heroically resisted avocation. To a certain degree this inference is correct. During term, the Oxonians are remarkably gregarious animals. I should say that in college the average student does not work three-fourths as hard as the average American collegian. The interminable breakfast and luncheon parties; the athletic games, in some one of which nearly every Englishman participates for two or three hours in the afternoon; the ensuing "teas," often protracted till the seven-o'clock bell summons host and guests to "dinner in Hall;" the hilarious evening "wines,"—all these, in addition to the ordinary informal calls on friends, consume a prodigious amount of time. While not every English undergraduate engages every day in every one of these social functions, the total number of hours so spent justifies my statement.

All this, if one were to summarize hastily, would induce one to believe that the American collegian must imbibe more learning than the Oxonian of the same formal standing, or that the Oxonian must possess some quicker insight into the mysteries of knowledge.

Luckily, the horns of the apparent dilemma may be avoided. If it were not so, the situation would be rather objectionable to one party or the other. We Americans are finding trouble enough already in keeping our heads above the scholastic stream here without the influx of any such new tributary; and the Englishman,—well, the Englishman likes as little as we do to admit his inferiority in any respect to any creature on earth.

WORK-TIME AND VACATION TRANSPOSED.

There is, however, a consideration that impairs the value of such a delightfully simple logical deduction. Roughly, the American's work-time, the college term, is the Englishman's slightly interrupted play-time; but the American's play-time, the vacation, is the Englishman's slightly interrupted work-time. During his eight months or more of term, the average collegian in the United States may get in something like six, seven, or eight hours' study a day, including lectures and recitations which he must attend; during the vacations, he earns money, "kills time,"—does everything but "read," in the Oxford sense of the word. The average Oxonian, not usually obliged to attend many lectures, having practically no recitations and only three real examinations during his three, four, or five years' course, spends his six months of term in cultivating the amenities of life, with only a two or three hours' daily dab at the dusty tomes on his shelf. But during the long vacations, covering more than half the year, that Oxonian, free from financial care and surfeited with "slack-ing," sows his seed for the harvest of knowledge which he is expected by his tutor to stow away in the barns of "Colleckors,"—certain informal but detested examinations awaiting him on his return to college. Eventually, then, throughout the year, English and American collegians study approximately the same number of hours.

THE ENGLISHMAN'S SUPERIORITY IN GENERAL CULTURE.

Although this is so, and although the radical differences between the educational pursuits of the two countries afford us some solace in puzzling the Englishmen to ascertain our intellectual avoirdupois, the conviction is being pungently forced upon us Rhodians that in many

respects the amount of information we've assimilated is not to be compared with that of the brighter of our cousins. It is a fact that in general reading the more studious Oxonian has us at his mercy; in every form of classical scholarship except that of painstaking investigation of minute obscurities, a favorite pastime in Germany and America, we are "down and out." The ordinary American collegian, maybe, has heard such names as Murillo and Titian. He's an exception if even the names come to his mind spontaneously. If he should be asked whether they were sculptors or painters, he'd probably think it a "catch" question, and answer, "musicians." I don't think I'm slandering the American "Rhodes Scholars" when I say that not one in five of us could tell the difference between a Raphael and a Guido Reni, and I'm sure that previous to this vacation not one in ten could have spoken intelligently of a dozen, or even half-a-dozen, great painters. The Englishman can; nor does he stop with a dozen. In knowledge of artists, ancient and modern, and in appreciation of their productions, we American collegians, as a class, are immeasurably inferior to the Oxonians. Sculpture and sculptors, and, in a less degree, perhaps, music and musicians, are comparatively *terra incognita* to us. Even our college glee-club members are occasionally unable to tell how Mozart differs from Wagner, while, so far as the majority of our collegians can say, Michael Angelo and Damp't might have been compatriots, contemporaries, and compeers. The Englishman can usually tell a better story; and his information is not exhausted at precisely that advanced stage, either.

WHY THE ENGLISH BOY IS BETTER READ.

Our first deficiency, then, a comparative scantiness of general reading,—how are we to account for it? At least three possible reasons occur to me, the last of which also partly explains our professed classicists' inferiority in the classics. In the first place, the vast majority of Oxonians are the sons of men well situated financially and socially (and in England the possession of these two *desiderata* often implies a certain amount of scholarship),—men whose houses contain large libraries. The son has from youth had, at least, the omnipresent opportunity to browse. This is by no means so frequently the case in the homes of American collegians. Secondly, the Oxonian is not the offspring of one of that numerous class of fathers in the United States who believe that their youngsters should work with their hands as well as play, and accordingly set them tasks to perform about the house and

grounds. The American boy does the work, and then hunts up the "gang," to engage in the game of baseball, or what not, that boy nature demands. The English boy, the prospective Oxonian, has his play, and then naturally relapses into an easy-chair in the library and picks up some novel (probably not a "popular" one), without having consumed a couple of hours of his day in currying a horse, pulling weeds, or raking the lawn. Undoubtedly we get something out of our manual labor that the Englishman's mind or body or general nature lacks, but it isn't knowledge of books.

THE LACK OF CONCENTRATION IN AMERICAN EDUCATION.

The third and chief reason for the Oxonian's greater breadth of general reading is connected with his superiority to our collegiate classicists in the classics, and its causes. We irritably ask ourselves how it is that these Oxonians can alude with such exasperating frequency to books and authors of whom we have hitherto remained in blissful ignorance. Part of the answer is found when an American refers to a chemical formula, physical law, or mathematical principle. The same dull stare of abysmal ignorance,—rarely the same attempt to veil that ignorance in a knowing smile,—that we had worn when the books and authors were under discussion instantly clothes the Englishmen's countenances. From their early days at Harrow, Eton, and Rugby till now, those Englishmen have been expected by their tutors to join their almost exclusive reading of classical literature in school with its natural complement, modern literature, out of school. From our early days in the public or private schools at home, we have been "taught" nearly everything under the face of the sun, from "Ring around a rosie" to botany. A smattering of nearly every form of knowledge has been thumped into us, and, like most smatterings, has oozed out through our cranial pores or such exits as my own smattering of psychology does not allow me technically to name.

Swamped by a great number of subjects, in his pre-collegiate days especially, such as a juvenile form of astronomy and geology, the American boy is apt to become temporarily interested in one and then another of these studies, and to devote his odd hours to out-of-school reading on his momentary hobby rather than to reading Scott, Dickens, or Thackeray. This is all very well if he has any decided taste for one or two of these subjects which may develop with advancing years. Such is often the case, to be sure, but far oftener he loses his puerile interest in successive ephemeral favorites; forgets all

but the last; and, finally, discovers his life-work without having the knowledge of literature that attends so naturally a more confined field of study in which the literature of the ancients is the most prominent feature. The difference between the English and American systems of, especially, preparatory education, then, seems to me a fairly reasonable third cause for our first deficiency.

THE ENGLISHMAN'S GROUNDING IN THE CLASSICS.

To come to our closely allied frailties in the classics. The classical scholars in America may be roughly divided into two species,—those who have studied their subject in the German manner and those who have studied more according to the English method. Both kinds are experiencing certain discomforting sensations at Oxford.

The "smattering" education we have received in our home schools is their origin. We have not really begun our classical work soon enough to be on a par with the Oxonian. The Englishman does not get glimmerings of countless subjects throughout his pre-collegiate days or in college. What he gets first he keeps getting repeated doses of, and at the completion of his university course in *Literæ Humaniores* he is saturated with literature, philosophy, history, and economics, ancient and modern. Within these bounds,—not such narrow bounds, after all,—he thoroughly dwarfs us "classical" Rhodians. Moreover, whether because we are an unrepresentative body of American collegians or because the human mind refuses to retain "smatterings," we are often led to doubt the scholastic value of our fleeting glimpses of vast subjects of which the Englishman never hears in school.

Of course, it is rather consoling, when overborne by references to Aristotle's theory of *Peripeteiai*, Sardou's latest play, Pindar's Fourth Pythian, or Shakespeare's Sixteenth Sonnet, to be able to ask the paralyzed Briton to pass the N^o. C, to work in an allusion to Boyle's law, or craftily to mystify him by a casual quotation of some formula in analytic geometry. The trouble is that we American "classicists," forced to get these inklings of many subjects which we never enjoyed and never mastered, but upon which we have spent an unconscionable amount of time, are haunted by the disturbing reflection that we've forgotten nearly every chemical formula save this one, reserved for state occasions, that we couldn't to save our lives clearly define Boyle's law, and that analytic geometry means nothing to us but a hazy array of once-memorized pages; while the Englishman, having passed un-

trammelled years in mastering just the subjects that appeal especially to us, but which we have not had so much time to absorb, could probably discourse for hours on *Peripeteiai*, could compare Sardou with Pinero and Sudermann in detail, could quote much of the Pindaric ode in question and point out its excellences and defects in comparison with odes of Milton, Gray, and Cowley, and could edify us with an extemporaneous harangue on the sonnet.

Perhaps this statement of the case is a trifle exaggerated. We don't tell the Oxonian that our knowledge of mathematics and the sciences is pitifully limited to such learned terms as those quoted, and it is just possible that there are still a few things which he does not know about the matters in which his profundity seems unfathomable. In general, however, this version is not the delusion of a despairing admirer; the Englishmen are far ahead of us "classicists" in our own particular field, owing to their long, consistent training in just this department, while our early study at home has been scattered over a wide range of subjects which, we must reluctantly admit, have made no lasting impression upon our minds.

This, I say, is the position of our classical students, as a whole, in relation to the Oxonian classicists. (I should have stated previously that my use of the term "Oxonians" in this discussion has been limited to the majority of Oxonians, who are reading for the classical "Schools," and does not include the comparatively few scientific students.) The position of the small number of our classicists, trained during their senior year and during their graduate years in colleges at home according to the German method, has some additional features. These men are handicapped even more than we English-method scholars, in their general classical knowledge, from having devoted much time to such detailed study, and here they have little opportunity to display their talent for this microscopic inquiry.

THE AMERICAN EQUIPMENT IN SCIENCE AND LAW.

The situation of the one or two scientists in our number, and of our prospective lawyers, is not so disheartening as that of our classical and literary students, yet even they are somewhat out of touch with the Oxonians by reason of their lack of the more thorough ancient and modern literary-historical-philosophical education of the Englishmen. The scientist is the better off of the two. He doesn't profess or need much knowledge of the classics; neither does the Oxonian scientist. But it must be remembered that a considerable study of classical

literature, philosophy, and history precedes and is necessary to even the scientists' admission to the university. Our American scientists, to be sure (those who are in Oxford), have done enough of classical work to enable them to pass the Oxford entrance examinations, but this amount is usually much less than that done by the Oxonian scientist. So, among his scientific Oxonian acquaintances he is apt to be a silent partner in conversation where classical knowledge is called into requisition. In his general reading, too, he is ordinarily behind the English scientist. But in his own field, science, he is likely to find that he really knows more,—not merely pretends to know more, as does the American classicist, with his forgotten "smattering" of science,—than his English co-workers, much of whose time has been spent in obtaining a rather limited knowledge, but yet more than a "smattering" of classics. The American, however, has to reconcile himself to the fact that there are relatively few Oxonian scientists to startle by his superiority, and that Oxford is distinctly inferior to the best American institutions in its scientific equipment. I should say, then, in brief, that our scientists are better informed than the English scientific students in their particular field, but have not quite the same breadth of scholastic attainments.

A large number of the Rhodians from the United States are studying law. The Oxford law school admits only men who have taken their degree in arts. This fact has afforded our incipient lawyers the same embarrassment that we classicists feel. The Oxonian law student is a man who has usually either read exclusively for the "School" of *Literæ Humaniores* or for the "History School." The former is this combined study of ancient and modern history, economics, philosophy, and classical literature, which the additional reading of modern literature so readily follows. The latter, a constantly more popular "School," though still less distinctively Oxonian than the first, is, as the name signifies, historical,—political and economic. Our American law students have, as scholastic information to pit against this formidable equipment, their pre-collegiate and collegiate "smatterings," which are valuable to them in their profession if they remember them,—which is usually not the case, I fear. They also have such accumulations of facts as their ordinarily diversified courses in their home colleges have afforded. This is the extent of their scholastic preparation; and our relative *scholastic* status,—not the more comprehensive *mental* status, be it remembered,—is all I am discussing.

THE OXONIAN'S INTEREST IN POLITICS.

Although I have tried to confine myself as nearly as possible to the scholastic side of the Oxonian's mentality, I wish to touch upon another. In the "common rooms" of the different colleges, and at the Oxford Union, are all the leading English newspapers, and every day these, or personally bought papers, are carefully perused by seemingly all the undergraduates. The keenest sort of interest in British politics is manifested, and each succeeding phase is closely watched. Oxford, of course, has now, as it has had in time past, within its walls men who are to shape England's future; and these men, whether through birth or taste likely to enter public life, endeavor,—so far as reading goes,—to understand the internal condition of their country and its relations with other nations. (Such a class of collegians, already more or less definitely marked as the politicians of the next generation, exists here, a fact which seems odd to an American.) But the interest in state affairs does not stop with this body of men. A large number of students are fitting themselves for the civil-service examinations; and these men, too, narrowly observe the political, economic, and social situation of their country from day to day. Even here the careful reading of the papers does not end. The great mass of students who are reading for the classical "Schools" subjects which the American often derides seem to turn, quite as a matter of course, from Demosthenes to Chamberlain's latest speech,—or, rather, from the latter to Demosthenes,—for knowledge of current affairs is evidently considered to be of paramount importance. The history students, also, keep in touch with history in the making.

One cannot but compare this practice with that of the American undergraduates. At home, we have, of course, no such class of prospective politicians known during their college career, and by virtue of their college career, as almost certain to play a large part in ruling their country. With the evils of such a condition we also lose the benefit,—the having a number of intelligent, well-educated men who have been from youth afforded a special incentive to making themselves acquainted with their country's government, its internal and external relations, and its needs. The second class, also, of collegians particularly interested in current affairs we lack. My own experience leads me to believe that most of our students catch only a glimpse of the headlines of a daily paper,—if that, with the exception of the sporting news, which collegians everywhere read avidously,—and have a correspondingly hazy notion of the significance of passing events.

THE CHURCH-UNION MOVEMENT IN CANADA.

BY THE REV. J. P. GERRIE.

THE progress of church union in Canada is interesting and suggestive. Thirty years ago the different sections of the Presbyterian Church were united, and to-day nearly the whole of Presbyterianism is ranged under one banner. Eight years later the Methodist, the Methodist Episcopal, the Primitive Methodist, and the Bible Christian churches came together as the Methodist Church, which, with very few exceptions, embraces the entire Methodism of Canada. The Baptists are also one body, and have never been separated, as they are in the United States and other lands. The denominations are therefore practically one among themselves, and this augurs well for the wider union now considered by the Presbyterians, Methodists, and Congregationalists.

This movement dates back many years in friendly good-will, fraternal exchanges, and resolutions and standing committees of annual gatherings, but it was not until the quadrennial conference of the Methodist Church in September, 1902, that anything practical was done. At that time a letter was addressed to the two other bodies, but for nearly eighteen months nothing more was done, when an informal conference was held in Toronto. It was then agreed to call meetings of the separate denominational committees, and subsequently a joint meeting of the committees. This joint meeting was held in the same city in April, 1904, and was an historic gathering. After an earnest and varied discussion, the meeting unanimously committed itself to union as both desirable and practicable, and referred the matter to the annual gatherings in June.

The Presbyterian Assembly meeting first took the matter into thorough and sympathetic consideration, and appointed a large committee to deal with the question. A week later, the Congregational Union did likewise, and were supported in their action by the Maritime churches in their gathering a few weeks afterward. The Methodists, inasmuch as their general gathering would not be held for two years more, had recourse to the constitutional power of the Conference, and named a committee corresponding with the committees of the other denominations.

The next stage in the movement was a three days' conference separately and jointly of these committees in Toronto in December last. That conference will long be memorable. The dis-

cussions were frank, cordial, and earnest, and a significant fact was the part taken in them by the older men, who might naturally be regarded as inseparably wedded to their own church life and thought. Among these, however, union found some of the most earnest and enthusiastic advocates, and in consequence there can be no misgivings about the reality of the movement. Five representative sub-committees were appointed to deal with questions of doctrine, polity, the ministry, administration, and law.

That these committees have great difficulties to meet must be admitted. It is one thing to talk about and resolve on union and quite another to make out a common acceptable basis. Much has been done, but the real problem is yet to be faced, though there are good reasons for believing it can be satisfactorily solved. For years the three denominations have been coming closer together, and the points of difference are often in theory rather than in practice. The Congregational churches have long been seeking closer coöperation through their district associations and other organizations. Standing committees are regularly appointed, through which help and counsel can be obtained as occasion may demand. Instances—apart from ordination to the ministry—are quite common where ministers and churches have refused to act in important matters without the counsel and sanction of the associations. On the other hand, both the Presbyterians and the Methodists show a marked approach toward Congregationalism in the self-management of their congregations, and in the advisory rather than in the authoritative in the deliverances from their church courts. This movement toward centralization on the one hand and the recognition of democracy on the other will greatly help in reaching a basis of union.

Nor should the question of creed present any insuperable barrier, as there is an unwritten one which in reality represents the theological position of the three denominations. By this is meant that the regularly accepted denominational standards do not control doctrinal conclusions, which are as varied in the churches possessing them as in those without them. In all three bodies are representatives of both the conservative and the radical schools, opponents and advocates of higher criticism, and men with diverging views on other great questions

of doctrine and theology. The unwritten creed covers the great essential facts of a common religion, but leaves doctrines of baptism, inspiration, evolution, and other debated questions to the individual mind and conscience. There should, therefore, be a readiness to put aside standards as authoritative which are inconsistent with this liberty of thought and belief. Unless this be done there can be no general or permanent union, and in doing so recognition will simply be made of the doctrinal attitude of each of the three bodies as it is to-day. It should be easy then to formulate a statement covering the essential position of the churches, and around which the fullest liberty of thought and conscience will be possible.

But a difficulty seemingly far more serious in the minds of some has arisen in connection with the famous Free-Church decision in Scotland. Might not a minority of any one of the uniting denominations hold back and subsequently claim the property of that denomination? This question is asked, and some hear an affirmative answer which, for them, effectually bars church union. The cases, however, are not parallel. In Canada there is no Church and State connection, as in the old land. And more, there is a precedent which shows the impossibility of such a crisis as the Scottish one. After the Presbyterian union in 1875, seven ministers of the Old Kirk, who stayed out, claimed that the unionists were seceders, and that to themselves belonged the large property of the Old Kirk Synod. A legal battle forthwith began, which resulted in setting aside the provincial legislation secured in Quebec for union. The united church then carried the matter to the Dominion Parliament, and obtained legislation upholding the union, which at the same time provided for the individual interests of the minority. Like legislation could be obtained again if needed. At any rate, the committees on union are going forward, fully assured that if there be any difficulty it can be easily overcome.

Out in the field and among the general following of the churches greater hindrances will be found. There is a conservatism which clings to the old name, forms, and dogma. Prejudices linger with good people up and down the land, and these may be found harder to deal with than diverging views on polity and doctrine. Already murmurs are heard that "we will have none of union," but these so far are few in number and not very formidable in tone. Time, however, is working great changes. Union holiday arrangements are becoming more common, in which churches of the different denom-

inations unite, one minister taking the first month and the other the second. The subject is favorably discussed from pulpit and platform as never before. The regular denominational papers are opening their columns to a free and frank consideration of the subject. The *Westminster*, a strong and influential undenominational magazine, is in the field, doing good service by occasional articles on union, and in the regular "Church Chronicle and Comment" department, in which the life and thought of the five principal denominations are dealt with in every issue. The leading daily papers, such as the *Montreal Witness* and the *Toronto Globe and News*, have given wide attention to the movement. Before all these influences and agencies the walls of prejudice and bigotry must come down and give place to a united church which will be a triumph for Christianity, not only in Canada, but in the world.

The benefits of union will be many and varied. In the denominational publications, some of which are good and others far from what is desired, there should come a wonderful improvement. A first-class paper, equal to the best in the world, could be easily obtained. To educational work there would come a great economy of men and means, as well as untold progress in efficiency and power. As an example, let one great college be substituted in Montreal for the three which now stand side by side, overlapping one another in the greatest part of their curricula, and it is easy to imagine the immense benefits which would come to ministerial education. The overlapping in the ministry everywhere apparent would become a thing of the past. It is no uncommon thing to find in villages of a few hundred inhabitants these three and other denominations where ministers have two or three more outside appointments, and in filling them are often obliged to travel much the same ground. One strong church where the three now stand, with a more capable and better maintained ministry, would add incalculably to the moral and spiritual well-being of the community, which the present divided and oftentimes inefficient forces are unable to do. A response could be made to the great and rapidly growing west, where the demand for men and money far exceeds the supply. Foreign missionary enterprises would receive an impetus not now accorded them, and enlargements made on every side. Nor is it unreasonable to suppose that union in Canada would have its influence on denominations in other lands, and help in bringing about a corporate union for their common Christianity.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE CENTENARY OF SCHILLER'S DEATH.

SCHILLER died on May 9, 1805. One hundred years later, he is recognized as one of the few really great poets of the world. In the main, his message still rings true to our ears and to our hearts. The German magazines are full of Schiller articles, chiefly biographical, and the press of the rest of the world is also eloquent. In the *North American Review*, Dr. Wolf von Schierbrand has an interesting and sympathetic appreciation of Schiller, whom he regards as preëminently the national German poet, the favorite of German youth and German women. The popular notion that Goethe holds the first place among German poets is, he maintains, disproved by the fact that millions more of Schiller's works have been sold than of those of any other German writer. Schiller's dramas are always on the stage, and quotations from Schiller are found on every German tongue.

Goethe has never been "popular" in Germany, though a few of his works have been. He has always been, and he remains to-day, the poet of the select few; and not only Heine, but such second-rate stars as Uhland, Theodor Körner, Kleist, Hauff, have been, during nearly all this time, successfully vying with him for the prize of popularity. If ever a poet could be termed "national," in the broadest sense of that word, it is Schiller.

Schiller was the poet who, until the German Empire was unified, inspired the whole of the German nation.

The Schiller conception of the world; his notion of country, home, and family, of love, honor, and duty; his belief in the brotherhood of man, the oneness of the universe, and the inherent goodness of the human heart; his idea of divine government,—these things, within a decade of the poet's death, became part and parcel of the German soul.

After the war, Schiller was dethroned, and nearly every young German deemed himself a Bismarck, a disciple of Nietzsche. During the last fifteen years, this false god has been dethroned. "Once more the German people, high and low, recognize in him the poet who most admirably expresses the German soul at its best, the national consciousness at its truest." It is somewhat sad to remember that although the German nation has almost deified Schiller since his death, he spent his life in extreme poverty.

When the Körners offered him an asylum in Dresden for a time, in 1785, he was almost at starvation point: this was the time when he wrote his magnificent "Song



JOHANN FRIEDRICH CHRISTOPH SCHILLER.

to Joy," as well as his "Don Carlos." When Goethe secured for him a professor's chair of history in Jena the salary was 200 thalers (about \$145) a year. In those days, and until his death, apples and strong coffee had become his inexpensive passion. The apples he usually kept in a drawer of his writing-desk, and their odor, he claimed, furnished him inspiration. When he wrote his last, and perhaps most finished, drama, "William Tell," a year before the end came, he was so overworked and badly nourished that at night he kept himself from falling asleep at his work by munching apples and steeping his bare feet in cold water. When he wrote his "Fiesco," while a fugitive at Mannheim, he lived joyously on a diet of potatoes—potatoes baked, boiled, fried; potatoes, of which he had bought a cartload from a peasant, and which with their bulk took up about half the floor space in his garret. No wonder his health broke down! Even Chatterton affords no more pathetic spectacle. Abject penury was Schiller's portion through life.

Schiller's Modern Significance.

"Schiller's Message to Modern Life" is discussed by Prof. Kuno Francke in the *Atlantic Monthly* (May). However widely opinions may differ as to the greatness of Schiller the writer.

the thinker, the historian, or even the poet, says Professor Francke, "there can be no difference of opinion as to the greatness of Schiller the apostle of the perfect life." The central idea of Schiller's literary activity, continues this writer, is bound up with his conception of the beautiful.

Beauty was to him something vastly more significant than the empirical conception of it as a quality exciting pleasurable emotions implies. It was to him a divine essence, intimately allied, if not synonymous, with absolute goodness and absolute truth. It was to him a principle of conduct, an ideal of action, the goal of highest aspiration, the mark of noblest citizenship, the foremost remedy for the evils besetting an age which seemed to him depraved and out of joint. Art was to him a great educational force, a power making for progress, enlightenment, perfection; and the mission of the artist he saw in the uplifting of society, in the endeavor to elevate public standards, in work for the strengthening, deepening, and—if need be—remodeling, of national character.

Unfortunately, Schiller felt that his ideal could be attained only in direct opposition to the spirit of the age. The eighteenth century was too narrow and shallow for the development of an harmonious, well rounded, inner life.

To Schiller, life appeared as an unending opportunity for penetrating into the essence of things, for finding the unity lying back of the contrasts of the universe, of matter and spirit, of instinct and reason, and for expressing this unity in the language of art; striving for inner harmony, for oneness with self and the world, was to him the supreme task of man.

Schiller's conception of art, says Professor Francke, further, if carried out, would revolutionize our conceptions of to-day. How different, he asks, would the American stage be to-day if the managers of all our theaters worked for the elevation of the public taste instead of most of them being driven by the desire for private gain?

How different our literature would be if every writer considered himself responsible to the public conscience, if the editors of all our newspapers and magazines considered themselves public educators; how different our whole intellectual atmosphere would be if the public would scorn books, plays, pictures, or any works of human craft, which did not make for the union of our spiritual and our sensuous strivings; if, in other words, the cultivation of beauty had come to be acknowledged, as Schiller wanted it to be acknowledged, as a duty which we owe, not only to ourselves, but also to the community and the country; if it had come to be a regulative force of our whole social life.

In the same number of the *Atlantic*, Mr. William Roscoe Thayer considers "Schiller's Ideal of Liberty." This ideal love of liberty, he declares, accounts for the vitality of Schiller's reputation, which is one of the noblest factors in German literature.

Goethe overtops him in almost every field, and Heine surpasses him in lyric perfection, and yet it is Schiller, and neither Goethe nor Heine, whom the German people have taken into their hearts and foreigners have agreed to honor as the spokesman of many of the finest traits in the German nature.

Other American magazines contain Schiller articles, among the most notable being Dr. J. Perry Worden's paper on "The Personality of Schiller," in the *Outlook*. The significance of this German idealist-poet is set forth by the *Outlook* in this editorial paragraph:

The country of great thinkers and dreamers [Germany] has become, like the rest of the modern world, a resounding workshop; its energies are dedicated chiefly to-day to dealing with the material needs of man. But though the times have changed and for the moment or for the century the emphasis of interest lies elsewhere, nevertheless Schiller, like all the other idealists, will have the final word to say. Society will not achieve the idealism of which he dreamed by the paths which he marked out. The course is to be more arduous than he foresaw; for society must achieve its ideal organization, not by escaping from the real, but by mastering it. The hope and inspiration of the idealist of to-day is his belief that in dealing on a great scale with material realities men are testing to the full the capacity of those realities to satisfy the human soul, and, having mastered them, will ultimately put them under foot and find, as Schiller found and taught, that the only real joy in life is the joy of the spirit.

Some interesting Schiller reminiscences appear in *La Revue*, contributed by C. A. S. de Gleichen, a descendant of the poet. Madame de Staël's judgment of Schiller, says this writer, has never been equaled or surpassed by any biographer of the poet. She wrote:

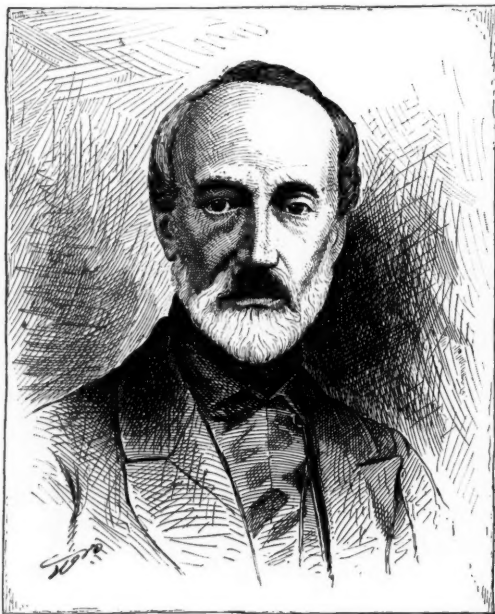
Schiller was a man of rare genius and perfect good faith. No career is more beautiful than the literary career when it is followed as Schiller followed it. He was admirable for his virtues as well as his talents. His conscience was his muse. His writings were himself: they expressed his soul, and he did not conceive it possible to change a single expression if the inner thought which inspired it had not changed. He lived, he spoke, he acted, as if the wicked did not exist, and when he depicted them in his works it was with more exaggeration than if he had really known them.

The writer recalls the interesting mark of sympathy accorded to Schiller by the revolutionary government at Paris in nominating him a French citizen. The document was wrongly addressed, and did not reach the author of "The Robbers" till October, 1793! He acknowledged it as a document from the dead, for Danton and Clavière signed it, a letter accompanying it bore the signature of Roland, and Custine had charge of it during his first German campaign; and all were dead before the document reached its destination.

THE CENTENARY OF JOSEPH MAZZINI.

JOSEPH MAZZINI, the Italian patriot, was born in Genoa, June 22, 1805. It is proposed to celebrate his centenary by public festivals and national demonstrations in many European cities. A brief sketch of Mazzini is contributed to the *London Review of Reviews* by Mr. D. T. Davies, and from this sketch we glean the following facts:

Mazzini ranks with Garibaldi and Cavour in the great trio of Italian liberators. Mazzini and Garibaldi, unlike Cavour, were both exiled from their native country,—the one compulsorily, the other voluntarily,—to escape the consequences of their liberal views. Mazzini was of middle-class parentage, Garibaldi was a son of the people, and Cavour's lineage was noble. Mazzini's



JOSEPH MAZZINI.

father was a distinguished professor of anatomy in the University of Genoa, and his mother was known for beauty of both person and character. Delicate health interrupted Mazzini's earlier studies. He deserted the study of anatomy for literature. However, he took his degree at the University of Genoa, and practised as an advocate gratuitously for the poor. Because he was a member of the Carbonari, the largest secret society of Europe, the government banished him from the larger towns of Italy. As police supervision in the smaller towns, at that time, was intolerable, Mazzini went to Marseilles, where he

wrote the series of pamphlets which were secretly smuggled into Italy, where to be found with a Mazzini pamphlet meant imprisonment for life, or banishment, or being shot in the back as a traitor. Compelled to leave France, he lived for a time in Switzerland, and later in London, where he experienced the bitterest pangs of poverty.

In 1848, Garibaldi accepted Mazzini's invitation to return to fight for Italy. The following year saw the short life of the Roman republic, with Mazzini as chief triumvir and Garibaldi as second leader of the forces. The French sought to capture the Imperial City, but without success. An armistice was agreed upon, but the French treacherously broke it, and, after surprising the troops of the republic, occupied the city. Finally, after a twenty years' fight, in which Cavour played a deep diplomatic game alternately with Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Louis Napoleon, the year 1870 saw Italy free at last and Victor Emmanuel king of the united country.

But the man who had been chief in its accomplishment, who had spread broadcast those writings which electrified the youth of Italy, who had sown the seed of which Garibaldi reaped the harvest, only to be gathered in by Cavour—Mazzini—remained an exile from the country he had created. Estranged from home, from parents, from friends—even from Garibaldi—he occasionally visited the scenes he loved, but only in disguise. At one time he traveled as an old woman; another time he might be seen dressed as a Capuchin friar; yet again, when a ship was overhauled, none of the searchers suspected that the man they sought was washing crockery in the cook's galley. On one occasion, disguised as a footman, he opened the door of a house to the police who came to arrest him. Sometimes he traveled as an English gentleman, but his favorite disguise was the dress of a dean of the English Church, with his shovel hat and gaiters.

Mazzini at heart was a republican, and he had not felt that he could take a vow of allegiance to a king, although he had been elected to the Italian Parliament. His main contention was for Italian unity, after which the people might select their own form of constitution. He died at Pisa, on March 10, 1872, and eighty thousand people followed his remains to the grave. He was buried in the Campo Santo, Genoa, where a statue was recently erected to his memory, and where also a Mazzini Museum is to be found.

In spite of his refugee existence, he yet found time to give the world those admirable writings which have charmed all who read them. Lumi-

nous were the essays which came from his pen, dealing with art, music, Victor Hugo, Lamennais, Byron, Goethe, Carlyle, Renan, and Dante. In these he exhibited a philosophic and deeply thoughtful tone, with phrases finely turned. Possessing a taste for setting his moral truths in epigrammatic form, his message is attractive, and he never hurls at us those vague and nebulous sentences which are the delight of so many philosophers. Had he never been inspired with the dream of nationality, his genius as a literary critic would alone have won him world-wide recognition.

Mr. Davies embodies in a paragraph some of the comments on Mazzini that have been made by eminent writers :

It is a fine tribute to his character that one class claims him as preëminently a religious teacher ; that

another regards him as supreme in the world of literature ; that a third claims him as the modern genius of political philosophy ; while a fourth ignorantly and vulgarly writes him down as a conspirator and an associate of assassins. To Carlyle he was "a man of genius and virtue, a man of sterling veracity, humanity, and nobleness of mind." To Jowett he had "a genius beyond that of most ordinary statesmen," and he prophesied that Mazzini's fame would increase when that of contemporary statesmen had passed away. Swinburne sang him into undying fame in his "Song of Italy." Mr. George Meredith clothed him with eternal glory in his fine novel "Vittoria," and so competent a judge as Mr. John Morley has pronounced him as "probably the highest moral genius of the century." Italy intends to recognize her indebtedness to him by the issue of a national edition of his writings, and a royal commission appointed for the purpose has recently issued a circular asking for letters to be forwarded to the secretary, Signor Mario Menghini, at the Biblioteca Vittorio Emmanuele, Rome.

WILL THE RUSSIAN CHURCH BE FREED FROM THE BUREAUCRACY?

A REMARKABLE historic document of capital religious importance to the Russian people appears in the *Contemporary Review* for May. It is nothing less than a translation of the preamble of a memorial address to the Czar by Mr. Witte, president of the Council of Ministers, in favor of the liberation of the Greek Orthodox Church from the despotic control of the state, and of restoration of spiritual and ecclesiastical freedom to the Russian Church. No state document of more transcendent importance has been published for many a long year. Here is probably the real deadly malady of Russia. One condition of a religious revival is freedom—freedom not only for the nonconforming sects, but especially freedom for the Greek Orthodox Church itself.

Mr. Witte traces the history of the Orthodox Church since the days of Peter the Great.

After two centuries of a policy of religious repression, Russia is now entering upon a path of broad tolerance. The impulse to this step has been given, not only by a feeling that religious oppression is inconsistent with the spirit of the Orthodox Church, but also by such proof of its futility as a long experience has afforded. Not only official reports, but also, and more particularly, the private communications of persons closely connected with missionary work, make it certain that oppression contributes to the growth of dissent and by no means to its enfeeblement. It is evident that even under conditions of entire external freedom, not to speak of state protection, the internal life of the Church is fettered by heavy chains which must also be re-

moved,—their effects are distinctly observable in the religious life of our time.

THE PARALYSIS OF THE RUSSIAN CHURCH.

The result of this reduction of the Church to be the mere serf of the state is paralysis. Mr. Witte continues :

Both the ecclesiastical and the secular press remark with equal emphasis upon the prevailing lukewarmness of the inner life of the Church,—upon the alienation of the flock, particularly of the educated classes of society, from its spiritual guides ; the absence in sermons of a living word ; the lack of pastoral activity on the part of the clergy, who in the majority of instances confine themselves to the conduct of divine service and the fulfillment of ritual observances ; the entire collapse of the ecclesiastical parish community, with its educational and benevolent institutions ; the red-tapism in the conduct of diocesan or consistorial business, and the narrowly bureaucratic character of the institutions grouped about the Synod. It was from Dostoyevski that we first heard that word of evil omen, "The Russian Church is suffering from paralysis."

How comes it that the Russian Church is practically dead ? The reply is that Peter the Great killed it. He made it a department of the police. This "Transformer of Russia," as he calls him, meaning thereby the Revolutionist, destroyed the ancient canonical system of the Orthodox Church, in which the faithful elected their clergy and the Church was ruled by councils in which both laity and clergy were represented, and substituted in its stead the bu-

reaucratic rule of the Holy Synod. He emphasizes the pernicious influence of these changes.

These efforts to subject to police prescription the facts and phenomenon of spiritual life, which lie altogether outside its competence, undoubtedly brought into the ecclesiastical sphere the mortifying breath of dry bureaucratism. The chief aim of the ecclesiastical reforms of Peter I. was to reduce the Church to the level of a mere government institution pursuing purely political ends. And, as a matter of fact, the government of the Church speedily became merely one of the numerous wheels of the complicated government machine. On the soil of an ecclesiastical government robbed by bureaucratism of all personal elements the dry scholastic life-shunning school arose spontaneously. This policy of coercing the mind of the Church, though it may have been attended for the moment by a certain measure of political gain, subsequently inflicted a terrible loss. Hence that decline in ecclesiastical life with which we now have to deal.

THE PRIEST A MERE POLICE SPY.

It is almost incredible to what lengths Peter went in subordinating the spiritual to the temporal powers. He imposed upon the clergy police and detective work that was entirely inconsistent with the clerical office. The priest was obliged to see that the number of persons subject to taxation was properly indicated, and, in addition, to report without delay all actions revealed to him in confession that tended to the injury of the state. "Thus, transformed from a spiritual guide into an agent of police supervision, the pastor entirely lost the confidence of his flock and all moral union with them." In order to rid the Russian Church of this nightmare, it is necessary, Mr. Witte urges, to begin with the parish.

The unfavorable turn taken by the career of the

Church in the eighteenth century revealed itself, perhaps, with the greatest clearness in the decline of the parish, that primary cell of ecclesiastical life. This change is the more noticeable as social existence within the Church in the old Russian parish was distinguished by great vitality. The Russian parish formerly constituted a living and active unit. The community itself built its church and elected its priest and the remainder of the church staff. Of this living and active unit there now remains nothing but the name. In order to secure a revival of parish life, it is necessary to give back to the ecclesiastical community the right, of which it has been deprived, of participating in the management of the financial affairs of the Church, and the right of electing, or at any rate of taking part in the election of, members of the clerical staff.

"SUMMON A NATIONAL CHURCH COUNCIL."

He puts forward various minor suggestions, such as a reform of theological seminaries, and concludes as follows:

For more than two hundred years we have not heard the voice of the Russian Church,—is it not time now to listen to it? Is it not high time to discuss what it has to say in regard to the present structure of Church life, which has become established against her will and in opposition to the traditions bequeathed to her by a sacred antiquity? In a national council, where it will be necessary to arrange for the representation of both the clergy and the laity, those changes in the structure of ecclesiastical life must be discussed which are necessary in order to place the Church on the level on which she ought to stand, and to secure for her all needful freedom of action. In view of the present unmistakable symptoms of internal vacillation both in society and in the masses of the people, it would be dangerous to wait any longer.

Will the Czar have the courage to say to this Lazarus of a Church, laid in swaddling-clothes for two centuries in the tomb of the state, "Loose her and let her go free!"

THE DEEP SHADES AND SHADOWS OF RUSSIAN LIFE.

THE existing *régime* imposes its burdens on all classes of Russian society. "Their relentless weight rests most heavily, however, on the peasantry and the factory labor. Years of repression and suppression, of mental and spiritual darkness, have reduced the Russian masses to a pitiful state. He who would paint a true picture of present-day Russia," says a recent contributor to the *Nedelya* (St. Petersburg), "must dip his brush in somber colors. The question 'what next' may be difficult to answer, but the question as it is is truly hopeless."

All is somber and gray; the peasant huts are leaning outward, the roofs are half rotted. In the huts there is darkness, and an oppressive, tainted atmosphere. Beyond the huts there are miserable gardens,

and farther still the expanse of fields full of weeds where groans the exhausted earth, incapable of bearing,—a nurse deprived of all strength. Against this background one sees the heavily laden peasant. It is his lot to be oppressed. In order to breathe a little more freely, he at times oppresses others. Such is the Russian village. People move about in the huts, near the huts, and work in the fields. On their sodden, yellowish-dark faces there is the stamp of deep, dumb sorrow, and of resignation. No illuminating intelligence shines in their actions. The herd-like life destroys in them everything living,—it destroys ability, and subjects the individual to the instincts of the blind masses. Accidents and habits hold sway, and blind instincts triumph; but there are no guiding principles to direct the work. There is no knowledge creative of enterprise. Such is peasant labor.

The wretched poverty of the peasantry, the



From the painting by S. Smirnov.

A RUSSIAN SOLDIER-PEASANT'S LAST EVENING AT HOME WITH HIS FAMILY BEFORE JOINING THE ARMY.

writer goes on to say, is rendered more oppressive by the fearful sanitary, or, rather, unsanitary, conditions which prevail in the villages. The same applies also to the towns, where the condition of factory labor is scarcely better than that of the peasants. We find sanitary defects in our fatherland wherever we turn, says another writer in the same journal. The sanitary conditions under which the factory employees live are frequently in an awful state, and their evils are multiplied by overcrowding.

As to village life, it is like an awful nightmare. The population is dying out in many places. Let us, for instance, consider the question of drinking-water, the contamination of which is widespread. The Volga and its tributaries are covered with naphtha to such an extent that in some places the water is totally unfit for use. Complaints concerning the contamination of drinking-water,—its bad taste, odor, etc.,—are heard from most of our large cities,—Kazan, Tomsk, Nizhni-Novgorod, and others. Even the filter plants, where they exist, frequently fail to help matters. The population is using water unfit for consumption, and falls a prey to various diseases. . . . But it is difficult to imagine, at times, how the village populations manage to exist on poisoned water which even cattle refuse to drink.

The factories and mills are largely responsible for thus poisoning the water-supplies of many villages. For example, in Ivanovo-Voznesensk, with a population of sixty thousand, there is no filter plant, and the river water is thoroughly contaminated. The fish, and even the frogs, have entirely disappeared, and one enterprising individual earns several hundred dollars a year by collecting the naphtha from the river. The grass refuses to grow on the meadows along the river, and the pastures have disappeared. The mortality is 37.3 per 1,000.

The disappearance of the fish and the deterioration of the pastures have deprived large numbers of peasants of their main source of income, and have at the same time added to the cost of food for factory labor. The unsanitary life of the latter, and the high mortality rate, as noted above, are due in part, also, to the miserable wages paid to the workmen. According to the report of Mikhailovski, the chief factory inspector of the St. Petersburg district, the annual earnings of the average factory employee in the government of St. Petersburg amount to 232 rubles (\$116); to about the same in the government of Moscow; to 255 rubles in the government of Kherason; and to 268 rubles in Baku. These aver-

ages include the comparatively high wages of the masters, and also of the much lower wages of the unskilled or common labor, whose annual earnings do not exceed 150 to 170 rubles. Notwithstanding these low wages, the Russian workmen are obliged to pay as much, or more, for their provisions as is paid by the workmen in England or America. Thus, the factory employees in the Russian cities must pay three cents for a pound of flour, nine to ten cents for a pound of meat, and ten cents for a pound of sugar. Everything considered, therefore, the American workman is paid five times as much for his labor, and the English workman four times as much. The economic conditions, normally bad, have grown immeasurably worse on account of the general depression due to the war. In many of the agricultural districts there is no bread, and not even seed for the following season. Numerous families have lost their supporters, who were called to the front, and the resulting situation in not a few Russian villages is well illustrated by a letter to the *Yuzhnoye Obozryeniye* from Slavyanoserbsk, district of Tiraspol. "It is war, war,—war of the unarmed and helpless against a pitiless foe," writes the village Starosta, Boris Sychenko.

The name of this foe is hunger. There walk on our streets, not men, but the resemblance of men. And

who can describe their anguish? Help us! We received here only six thousand poods for thirteen hundred persons. People here can scarcely stand on their feet, and the children are dying like flies (fifteen in fifteen days). Hasten with your help. Make it possible for people to get something to eat. We have families here who live we know not how. There are some who obtained some Indian corn somewhere. They boil it in water and eat it without salt or bread. At the gatherings there is gloom, confusion, and resentment. In the homes—hell.

In view of these facts, it is not surprising that the peasants are frequently goaded to desperation. Their wretched life, their ignorance and superstition, make them an easy prey to agitators. Thus, the *Russkiya-Vyedomosti* reports that in the governments of Orel and Kursk the peasants have been holding meetings. They agree upon a certain plan of action, and at night attack the estates of wealthy landlords or merchants. The storehouses where the grain is kept are attacked and plundered, the buildings destroyed, the forests cut down. Many estates have thus been pillaged. The *Kievlyanin* (Kiev) reports similar outrages in the governments of Orel and Chernigov. A number of large estates have been pillaged, important sugar refineries burned, and thousands of pounds of sugar destroyed. The losses are enormous, it being estimated that the Mikhailovsk refinery alone suffered to the extent of three million rubles. The peasant



RUSSIAN PRISON WOMEN IN SAGHALIEN BEING DRILLED FOR SELF-PROTECTION.

mob engaged in this work of destruction numbered about three thousand. The *Russkiya Vyedomosti* also reports that the peasants near the town of Dagda, government of Dvinsk, have been made desperate by hunger. They have pillaged and destroyed several estates, carried off everything that was portable, and destroyed the rest. The cattle from some of the estates was driven off; the surviving landlords have escaped with some of their property, and have sought protection with the soldiers who were sent from Dvinsk. The local police does nothing. The inhabitants of the town do not sleep at night, fearing an attack by the peasants.

The fermentation among the factory employees still continues. The *Pravo* reports that five hundred striking artisans attacked the police in Sukhum. A demonstration by the unemployed occurred in Kiev. Similarly, the *Syevero-Zapadny Krai* recounts the strike disorders in Dvinsk. The *Vyestnik Yuga* reports rumored street disorders in Yekaterinoslav. A far-reaching strike has paralyzed all industrial activity in Byelostok. "Factories, mills, printing houses, small industrial establishments, stores, street-car lines, express carriers, etc.,—everything is idle." Conflicts between students or workmen and the police or military have occurred in Smolensk, Turiya, Oryekhov-Zuyev, Warsaw, and many other places; and attempts to assassinate police or other officials have occurred in Minsk, Dvinsk, Warsaw, Ochetchiry, Potti, Tiflis, St. Petersburg, Kremenchug, etc. The reign of anarchy is at times hastened by the overzealous government officials, who organize counter-demonstrations and try to array class against class, or race against race.

The Kishinev and Baku massacres are but prominent instances of such activities. Similar incidents on a smaller scale have occurred elsewhere. Thus, on March 11 a drunken mob

armed with axes and clubs surrounded the schoolhouse in the village of Yelani, in the government of Saratov, with the avowed purpose of killing the schoolmaster. It appears that for several days previously a number of suspicious persons appeared among the peasants, telling them that the teacher was an anti-Christ; that he did not believe in God, since he claimed that the earth revolved and that there are spots on the sun. The agitators implored the parents not to send their children to school, and thus save them from ruin. On March 4 there was a great gathering of peasants, at which whiskey to the amount of 600 rubles (\$300) was consumed. After this the mob marched to the school, drove off the children, and destroyed the school furniture. The schoolmaster escaped as if by a miracle.

It would seem that the agitators were carrying out instructions which they had received from others in pursuance of the general policy of suppressing enlightenment and independent judgment. This same policy is made manifest in a recent order of the governor of Vladimir, whereby the postmaster of the city of Vladimir was to report the names of all the residents of Vladimir who were subscribers to the papers *Nasha Zhizn*, *Nashi Dni*, and *Syn Otechestva*. One of the students of the local gymnasium found reading *Nasha Zhizn* was placed by the director in the detention cell for five hours. Such, in brief, are but a few of the innumerable facts, reported in censored Russian journals, which may serve to show to the outside world the burdens of the Russian men and women.

Ignorance and superstition among the peasants and workmen, tacitly encouraged by the powers that be; official corruption and intolerance, disrespect for the law, disregard of human rights,—these and other ills make Russian life what it is, a great burden to the many, and a round of heedless pleasure to the few.

AN ENGLISHMAN'S IMPRESSION OF MAXIM GORKY.

WHEN the famous Russian Liberal author, Maxim Gorky, was released from the fortress prison in St. Petersburg he consented to be interviewed by an English writer. This writer (in a character sketch in the *Fortnightly Review* signed "R. L.") describes the novelist as very unlike the flighty, irresponsible figure that looms so grotesquely in the imagination of Europe. He says:

Gorky's physical type is maligned by most of the photographs published. In these photographs he looks nervous, anæmic, hunted, sentimental. The Maxim

Gorky whom I left a week ago among the evergreen woods of Bilderlinghof, on the Baltic coast, is a tall, straight, deep-chested, large-boned man who towered like a giant over the squat Germans and stunted Lettish peasants who are now struggling for racial dominion on the Livonian coast. In features he is as far removed from the refined, weak-faced intelligents as from the submissive, apathetic muzhik. The forehead is broad, furrowed deeply when he talks, and surmounted by a mop of dark hair; the eyes gray, serene, slightly defiant; the nose big, not unlike Tolstoi's, but even more shapeless, the mouth big, somewhat grim, and the jaw, now fringed with a scanty red brown beard grown in jail, square, massive, and resolute. You feel

at once that this is a self-possessed, masterful man,—a man in whom character is even more remarkable than intellect.

In his conversation he spoke cautiously, weighing every word, and revealing the real moderation and dignity of his character. He is a strong individualist, and is very far from being the champion of barbarism. He only made two observations that indicated a belief that anti-social or barbaric instincts were anything but unnatural and a peril to mankind.

The first of these remarks was that "the vagabond instinct is strong in all Russians;" the second, that "modern society is beginning to decay. It is tired, outworn, conscious of its insufficiency. Like the later Roman Empire, it needs new blood,—a barbarian irruption." Having affirmed these two propositions, each outside the domain of polemics, Gorky appeared a man of modern, progressive, cultivated sympathies, passionately devoted to advancement, and enthusiastic in eulogy of those nations which in civilization and citizenship have led the van. He has, indeed, never been out of Russia, and speaks no foreign language. But his survey of the comparative cultural condition of Russia's numberless races showed how his sympathies lie.

His chief hostility to the existing system lies in his conviction that under the present system progress, culture, and national unity are impossible.

The government's worst offense was that it was an enemy of civilization, not that it was harsh and tyrannical. Indeed, Gorky seemed to have little hope for the

redemption of Russia by any mild and benevolent system of rule. "I have seen too much," he said, "and lived through too much, to think that love between men as brothers can be relied upon as a basis for a reformed society. But each man must respect humanity." All, therefore, he demanded from the Russian or any other government was that it should respect human personality, and that it should not shackle the progressive instincts natural in all men.

Although he could only read Russian, he has read in Russian translation as much English literature as nine out of ten educated Englishmen. When he was a cabin boy aged fifteen on a Volga steamer he read "The Tempest" and "A Midsummer Night's Dream," and was immensely impressed by them.

But, as he loved the literature of England as a whole for its sanity and joyousness, he rejected everything tinged with asceticism or Puritan restriction of human joy. Thus, he could not appreciate Dante, or even Milton, though his failure to understand the English poet he attributed partly to the badness of the Russian translation. Admiring both, he compared Shelley to the varicolored, glittering Alps, and Byron to the menacing Caucasus. For Bret Harte, for Kipling, and—among humorists—for Mark Twain he expressed unbounded love. But he could not understand the later Kipling, and denounced the excesses of imperialism, whether British, American, or Russian, with vigorous contempt. "The national ideal," he said, "should be to be strong, not to be perpetually proving one's self strong. Strength is shown in restraint." For revealed religion, and in particular for the religion of states and established churches, he had no respect.

THE FUTURE OF THE RUSSIAN NAVY,—A BRITISH VIEW.

WRITING in the latter half of March, before the Russian Baltic fleet had entered Chinese waters, Mr. Archibald S. Hurd, an English naval expert, contributes to the *United Service Magazine* (London) a study of the problem before Russia in her task of building a great navy. The Muscovite Empire, Mr. Hurd believes, can never become a great naval power. Her people are a land people, and they have never acquired the "sea habit." Mere ships do not make a powerful navy. Russia, says this writer, never is, but always to be, blessed.

She is always big with schemes; her friends and sycophants are continually talking of her "might" and conjuring up phantom pictures of what she could do if she would. Just now little is heard of the millions of men under arms of whom it was the custom to boast a year or so ago, but the world is asked to marvel at what the navy of Russia will be when it has been built up once more. It is an idle task to anticipate the events of the inscrutable future, but this form of prophecy is one of Russia's most valuable national assets. She is, and always has been, feared, not for what she has

shown that she can do, but on account of what her apologists claim she could do. She was thus exaggerated into a great naval and military power at whose threats chancelleries trembled. It remained for the smallest, poorest, and least "civilized" of the powers to prick the bubble which Russian agents had industriously blown, with the result that Russia's military prestige for months past has been sinking in the eyes of the world, and she has ceased, for the time, to be a naval power of any consequence.

Russia, Mr. Hurd continues, has been forced to abdicate her naval position in the West in order to deal with the situation in the far East. But she has never really been a maritime nation. Since the time of Peter the Great, she has had a navy, "an exotic and purely political instrument." She won her naval prestige wholly by her wars with Turkey and Sweden in the last century. It was a bad day for Russia, we are told, further, when mechanical propulsion for vessels was introduced. She has never had many born mechanics.

She had a fair supply of sailors of splendid courage

and magnificent hardihood, but she possessed no system of education and no trades to provide the seamen of the new type, instinct with mechanical aptitude. As the years passed and the domination of physical science on board men-of-war became more and more pronounced, the Russian deficiency became increasingly apparent. No nation without high technique can maintain a great fleet in efficiency in these days. Russia refused to face the situation. The admiralty at St. Petersburg still looked upon the mere ships as synonymous with sea power, and additions were made to the fleet with little or no regard to the most important factors,—properly educated and well-trained crews. As the demand for more seamen increased, men were called from the fields in districts far removed from the sea. They had no love of the life, the sea was to them a force which they did not understand and did not wish to understand, and at the same time they were lacking in intelligence and in all mechanical knowledge. They were agricultural laborers, that and nothing more. The greater the fleet became,—the more rapidly ships were built in French, German, American, and Russian shipyards,—the more apparent became the difficulty to obtain crews, and year by year the quality of the personnel fell. It is not suggested that the Russian sailor has been or is devoid of courage. On the contrary, he has always been brave and daring, and in the present war he has shown his metal on many occasions. But the day has passed when brute courage, unallied with an active, trained mind and mechanical skill, counted for much in naval warfare. While Russia should have been concentrating attention on the means of training men for her fleet, she was satisfied with building ships, or ordering them abroad,—ships, still more ships,—under the delusion that these vessels, however inadequately manned, meant power.

When we remember, also, Russia's geographical position, we can well understand her difficulties in creating a powerful navy.

She had to organize four navies,—one for the far East, one for the Caspian Sea, one for the Baltic, and another immured in the Black Sea by the treaty of Paris. She had to utilize the Baltic for the training of her main sea forces, and here each year the winter closed up the waters early and failed to release them until late in the spring. All the months which Great Britain and the United States employ in training were useless to the Russian admiralty.

The dispatch of these ships to the East, the *United Service* writer admits, was an unparalleled event. "It is the most imposing force which has ever passed in full fighting trim from West to East,—indeed, the biggest squadron of modern ships which has sailed any ocean on a warlike mission." Yet Russians will probably never make good sea fighters, in Mr. Hurd's opinion.

The men who are available for the Russian fleet have no technique, nor have they the mechanical aptitude, nor, again, love of the sea. They are dumb driven cattle, whose hearts are not in their work. Russia may go on building ships of war, but these vessels are not sea power. Sea power is a weapon far less easily obtained. Russia must go back over her whole administration and remodel it; she must recognize that mechanical skill is even more essential in the personnel than brute courage, and that before her ships can be rendered fit to meet an efficient and adequately trained fleet at sea the whole character of the personnel must be raised.

JAPAN'S TERMS OF PEACE AND HER NEGOTIATORS.

A GREAT many old scores will have to be settled by the treaty of peace between Russia and Japan if this peace is to be satisfactory and permanent. In a brief but vigorous paper in the *North American Review* (May), Mr. Adachi Kinnosuké recounts some of these old scores and outlines the probable terms of peace that Japan will exact. He begins by quoting Article II. of the Shimonoseki treaty, which closed the war of 1895 between China and Japan, thus bringing up the subject of the "friendly advice" given Japan by Russia, Germany, and France, in accordance with which Port Arthur and the Liao-Tung peninsula were retroceded to China—and, later on, handed over to Russia. The diplomatic relations between Nippon and Russia, says Mr. Adachi, are "worse than a woman with a past." He goes over the tortuous Muscovite diplomacy which secured the island of Saghalien, and asserts that the retrocession of this island, with its adjacent valuable fishing waters, to Japan will be a *sine qua non* of peace. On this point he says:

For many a year it has been no secret with us, the people of Nippon, that there is one wish somewhat dearer to the heart of his majesty the Emperor than others. On the day when he received the dais from his imperial father, the empire of Nippon contained the island of Saghalien; on the day when he will vacate the dais in favor of his heir, he would see on the map of Nippon at least every inch of the soil which had known the gracious rule of his august father. And, to-day, a wish of his majesty,—I do not care how slight or remote it be,—is nothing short of a passion with the people of Nippon.

As to the disposition of Manchuria, continues Mr. Adachi, "through the weary months that have fertilized its plains with her blood Nippon's wishes have never been altered."

She wishes Russia to evacuate Manchuria; she has not the slightest desire of remaining in it herself. In making a present of Manchuria to China, Nippon in all fairness might be permitted to ask China to furnish her a joint guarantee from three powers,—namely, America, Great Britain, and Nippon herself,—that the territory thus turned over to its rightful owner, China, shall not be leased or ceded to a foreign power; that is one requirement. And the other boon she would be likely



Itagaki.

Yamamoto.

Komura.

Matsukata.

Ito.

POSSIBLE JAPANESE PEACE NEGOTIATORS.

to ask is this: That, in consideration of the return of the province wherein is the imperial mausoleum of the reigning house of China the Chinese Empire would consent to open a number of her provinces, ports, and towns to the commerce of all the world. This, of course, is important, commercially, to the interest of Nippon. The chief end in view, however, is to waken our neighbor to her national consciousness.

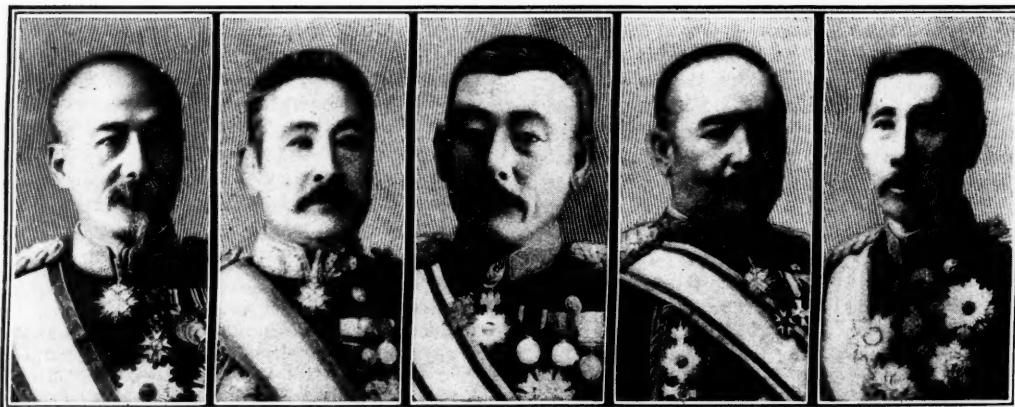
As to the Chinese Eastern Railway (from Harbin to Port Arthur and Dalny), Nippon will demand that this be turned over to her. This writer believes that the Tokio government will demand the cession of Siberian territory east of the Amur River, the line of demarcation to be drawn from the mouth of the river to Nicholaievsk, and then to follow the course of the river to the Manchurian boundary. This, of course, would include Vladivostok. The possession of this stronghold and naval base, he be-

lieves, is absolutely essential to the permanent peace of the far East and the future security of the national existence of Nippon.

As to indemnity, says Mr. Adachi, in conclusion, it is perhaps too early to speak of that. The question of indemnity depends solely on the duration of the war.

Who Will Negotiate Peace?

It is now becoming recognized in Japan that while the armies of the Czar may not be able to withstand the Japanese force in the field, the diplomats of St. Petersburg are astute enough to give Japan a hard fight for the fruits of her victory after it is won. Much depends upon Japan's choice of peace negotiators. An intimate account of Japanese politics and of the real leaders of the nation, some of whom will treat with the diplomats of Russia, is given by Mr.



Kodama.

Ito (Admiral).

Nishi.

Katsura.

Yamagata.

POSSIBLE JAPANESE PEACE NEGOTIATORS.

Jihei Hashiguchi in the *World's Work*. Mr. Hashiguchi admits that Russia's clever diplomacy in the past has many times been too much for Japanese statesmanship. He is not quite certain that Japanese statesmen have learned the lesson of ten years ago, or that they will be as successful as their admirals and generals have been. In considering the development of Japan's diplomacy he gives a rapid outline of the political parties in the Mikado's empire. To begin with, he points out that in Japanese politics the influence of men from four of the great feudal clans is paramount, since the members of these clans (Satsuma, Choshu, Tosa, and Hizen) were the principal actors in the restoration of the Mikado to power in 1869. Characterizing these clans, he declares that the Choshuans, "like the Athenian of old, is a man of cool head, eloquent, clever, fit to be a statesman; but his statesmanship lacks aggressiveness, and he is prone to compromise when a political dispute arises."

The representative Choshuans are Marquis Ito, Viscount Katsura (prime minister), and Baron Kodama, chief of staff with Oyama. The Satsuma clan may be likened to Sparta. The Satsuman is warm-hearted, eloquent, and quick. He does not compromise, and is a born fighter. The great historic Satsuman is Saigo Takamori, leader of the great rebellion. Among the representative living Satsumans are Field Marshal Oyama, Admirals Togo, Ito, and Yamamoto, Generals Kuroki and Nodzu, and the statesmen Matsukata and Nishi. The men of the Tosa clan (the influence of which is second to that of the two others) are resourceful and tenacious of principles, but not so shrewd or aggressive as members of the other clans. Prominent Tosans of

to-day are Itagaki, organizer of the Liberal party, and Goto, many times member of the cabinet. The last of the four great clans is the Hizen, which is represented by Counts Okuma, Oki, and Yeto Shimpei. The clan's influence depends now almost entirely upon Count Okuma, —a proud, shrewd, and patriotic man.

Characterizing the different individuals and their fitness to be peace negotiators, Mr. Hashiguchi declares that Itagaki has practically lost influence with his party, and that Count Okuma, although the foremost diplomat of modern Japan, is too proud and aggressive to be elastic when elasticity is required. Marquis Ito, who stands on a par with Count Okuma as one of the leading statesmen of modern Japan, has perhaps too great a fear of the power of the West, to which he has always been anxious to yield. Ito's three most prominent followers are: Baron Suyematsu, a diplomat, scholar, statesman, and author; Baron Kaneko, diplomat, minister, and economic writer, now in this country; and Baron Ito, at present a member of the privy council. The influence of the other field marshal, Marquis Yamagata, chief of the general staff, should not be forgotten. It was he who reorganized the Japanese army on the German system. His followers are Viscount Katsura, the present prime minister; Baron Kiyoura, minister of agriculture and commerce; and Baron Sone, minister of finance. Viscount Katsura is an all-round man, the author of the Anglo-Japanese alliance. Another man of action and great influence in the present ministry is Baron Komura, minister of foreign affairs, who won his eminence by shrewdness after the war with China.

THE SUGGESTED RUSSO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.

IT appears that there has been some support in Japan to the suggestion, which was originally credited to the Emperor of Germany, that, after the war, a friendly understanding amounting to an alliance should be brought about between Russia and Japan. The Anglo-Japanese alliance has not, in the opinion of a number of prominent Japanese periodicals, come up to the expectation of the Mikado's government. Dissatisfaction with it has been concealed by the thin veneer of politeness which the Japanese express toward England so long as the alliance actually exists. Although the Japanese journals in general do not refer to this subject, many of the leading men are, it is claimed, looking forward to the time when the

island empire will readjust all her diplomatic relations.

The whole ground of these relations is covered in an article, entitled "The Conclusion of Peace Between Russia and Japan," which appears in the *Taiyo* (Tokio). The writer, Mr. T. Hayakawa, a member of the Japanese House of Representatives, begins by stating that Russia is not by any means so formidable a power as the world has heretofore believed. If you turn over the pages of the history of Russian expansion, he says, "you will at once perceive that the Muscovite has never played a fair game." Russian aggression, he goes on to say, has been directed, not against civilized nations with modern military equipment, but against backward races,

such as those in Siberia, or against such miserably equipped nations as Turkey and other minor peoples in the Balkans. Russia's real strength had never been fully tested until it came into collision with that of Japan. The secret of Russian success, this writer believes, lies in the fact that she has heretofore wielded her weapons only against weaker enemies, as well as in the fact that she enjoys a most favorable geographic situation, which prevents successful invasion. Her geographical situation also has stimulated her desire for expansion. In order to develop her commerce and to advance her civilization, Russia found it absolutely necessary to establish outlets on southern waters.

Intoxicated by her successes, which had been easily achieved in dealing with her weaker antagonists, Russia underestimated Japan's power and resources. Always modest, and generally too meek, Japan had always acquiesced in Russia's propositions. Thus, the northern bear robbed the island empire of Saghalien, and, in conjunction with Germany and France, took from her the Liao-Tung Peninsula at the close of the Chino-Japanese War. The negotiations leading up to the present struggle further impressed Russia with the patience of the island nation. Russia's arrogant and challenging attitude was due really to complete ignorance of the resources of her little enemy.

IS A RUSSO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE POSSIBLE ?

A treaty of alliance between two nations on a close footing is impossible so long as one has no regard for the rights of the other. Up to the present moment, it has been utterly impossible for Russia and Japan to come to an understand-

ing of such a nature. But, now that the Muscovite government has become convinced of the prowess of the Japanese nation, it is quite possible that St. Petersburg would really desire to form an *entente cordiale* with the Tokio government. The gist of the proposition advanced by Mr. Hayakawa is found in his closing paragraph.

It is neither possible nor wise to entirely drive the Russians out of Manchuria. An attempt to expel them from northern China would mean the tremendously greater task of wiping them out entirely from Siberia, a task which no sane man would ever dream of accomplishing. So long as Russia holds Siberia, it is but natural that she will attempt to force her way to the Eastern seas. The danger of the Russian advance in the far East lies, not in the fact of the advance, but in its military nature. If this advance should be of a peaceful nature, aimed at the promotion of her commercial interests, without jeopardizing the sovereignty of China and Korea, there is no reason why Japan should not respect Russian rights in Manchuria. The present war is waged because Japan was forced to deliver Manchuria and Korea from the oppression of Russia. When Japan's protectorate over Korea has been universally recognized, and when Manchuria has been returned to the Chinese Government, Japan's aims have been well-nigh accomplished. If she insists on curbing Russian influence entirely in the far East, time, we believe, will tell that Japan has blundered. But if, generously casting aside hostile feelings after the peace treaty, the now belligerent nations enter into an alliance, together they might prove the strongest force in preserving the peace of the far East. Russia is now fully aware that as an opponent Japan is very formidable, but as an ally she could be made a strong and reliable friend. If Russia will renounce her ambition for military aggrandizement, and will extend her hand in friendly relationship to Japan, with the view of promoting her own commercial interests in eastern Asia, we Japanese will gladly welcome her as our friend and ally.

GERMANY'S NEW ECONOMIC POLICY.

THE recently negotiated renewals of Germany's commercial treaties are made the occasion of a review of "A Century of German Commercial Policy" in the Berlin weekly *Die Woche*. The present treaties are regarded as the culmination of decades of effort and struggle to strengthen Germany's economic position. The ups and downs of these efforts, and especially the various factors affecting the rise and fall of the famous Zollverein, are entered into with considerable minuteness. But the beginning of a real success in the establishment of a central European economic domain, with Germany as its leading factor, dates from the treaties negotiated by Caprivi in 1891. The following survey is given of the significance of these and of subsequent developments :

The treaties of 1891 have with justice been designated by Emperor William II. as a "saving act." For the problem of compelling Russia to break away from her medieval seclusive system was for the first time successfully solved, and the prospect opened of a union of the leading European states, at least in economic relations. The treaties promised to be advantageous, not only in the economic domain, but also in the field of politics. German industry and German commerce have, in fact, according to the general estimation, been indebted for extraordinary advantages to the treaties of 1891-94. They met with vigorous opposition, on the other hand, in the agricultural world, where the abrogation of the considerable increase of tariff rates upon food products, introduced in the struggle against Austria and Russia, was, from the start, very grievously felt. In view of the significance of the agricultural contingents in the economic life of Germany and their great influence in parliamentary concerns as well as in official circles, they were naturally in a position to secure the greatest con-

sideration for their wishes. For years, therefore, owing to their agitation, efforts have been made in Germany to secure, in the renewal of the commercial treaties, more satisfactory conditions for the needs of agriculture. The endeavor of the government has been directed solely toward preventing the interests of industry and commerce from being thrust too far into the background, to the detriment of the people. The aim, however, of drawing the states of Continental Europe into a closer economic union and enabling them to stand up against America and Great Britain, in case of necessity, with greater strength was abandoned.

Now, says the writer, the end aimed at for years has been attained. After severe conflicts within the German realm itself, as well as with other countries, the renewal of existing arrangements for twelve years with the hitherto treaty-contracting nations has been accomplished, and that with a comprehensive regard for the interests of agriculture.

The government entertains the conviction that this object has been attained without imperiling commerce or sacrificing German export industry. Whether this view is wholly sustained by the facts, it remains for the future to demonstrate. At all events, the treaties just concluded do not signify a new epoch in commercial policy. On the whole, they must be regarded only as a new edition of Caprivi's work, altered to conform to the wishes of the agricultural contingent. Whether, upon the basis of those treaties, it will be easier to incline the United States to readjust and develop its commercial policy in regard to the German Empire can, for the present, be as little determined as the question how the relations of the great English colonies which have not entered into treaty relations with Germany will be shaped, and whether there is a prospect that the still existing most-favored nation agreements will be replaced by tariff treaties. Under any circumstances, however, it is a matter for rejoicing that German agriculture is released from the condition of uncertainty under which it has sorely labored for many years and is now enabled to make arrangements for the immediate future.

DOES GERMANY REALLY AIM TO ABSORB HOLLAND?

THE idea that the annexation of Holland is one of the goals of German imperial policy has long been entertained in England and elsewhere. A sharp expression of English suspicion in this direction (in the *Westminster Gazette*) is made the occasion of an article in the *Deutsche Rundschau*. The writer, Lieutenant-General Geest, discusses the question whether the absorption of Holland, or even an alliance with Holland, would be of military advantage to Germany. This question he answers with an emphatic negative. He declares, further, that only "politically naïve Germans," misled by superficial considerations, entertain any such notions. "Politically mature men," he says,—and these are the men who will determine the course of events,—are thoroughly convinced both that the essential requirements of a durable union are lacking and that the union would, in any reasonably near future, not be a source of increased strength to Germany.

General Geest argues that in the first place the union would be weak on the economic side, and would accordingly not give that military strength which comes from increased economic strength. Holland is essentially a free-trade country, Germany a protectionist country; and the causes of this difference are irremovable, Holland being predominantly commercial, Germany predominantly agricultural and industrial. An interesting possibility of the future is, however, pointed out in this passage, which bears upon Mr. Chamberlain's programme of imperial federation:

Now, it is, of course, conceivable that, in spite of the obstacles which exist at present, the European Continental countries might follow the English, in the tendencies now making headway among them, and form closed commercial areas with their colonies or other trans-oceanic countries which would unite with them; and that a time may then come when Holland, compelled to join a greater tariff unit, will turn to Germany, with which even now it maintains closer commercial intercourse than with any other country. But would it not then be the English themselves who will have caused the economic absorption of Holland by Germany?

Even if a tariff union between Germany and Holland were effected, says General Geest, this would not be an economic strengthening of Germany in time of war. As to such a union being a mere preliminary to a military or political union, the writer goes on to show in detail that a military connection with Holland would impose upon Germany burdens and responsibilities far outweighing any possible advantages. On the other hand, a neutral Holland is of the greatest possible advantage to Germany.

Not only should we [Germans] then have no concern about protecting her, but a serious danger, during a great war, to our own social life would become more remote. If intercourse through our ports should be stopped, our manufacturing interests, which maintain nearly half of the German nation, would be deprived of their regular supply of foodstuffs, and, above all, of raw materials, and would be hampered in the disposal of their products. If even at present many factories in the industrial sections of the country are obliged to close because they can no longer hold their own in the competitive race with foreign lands, the army of the un-

employed in the large cities might swell to such proportions that no way could be found to employ them profitably.

Nothing, he continues, could afford Germans greater help than a neutral Dutch maritime trade, which, by means of its water connections with Germany's industrial west, can take the place of the trade that goes through her North Sea ports, especially if suitable tariff advantages and customs reductions should be granted. Under a Dutch or some other neutral flag, the Rhine ocean vessels would cover the river as far as Cologne, and the Rotterdam lighters would have an enormous business to handle. Belgium, in this connection, is only a secondary consideration, because it has no waterway to Germany; Ostend is not very available, and Antwerp could be crippled by an enemy under all sorts of pretexts, since the Scheldt discharges its waters between Holland and Belgium and the rights of neutrals in a naval war are capable of the most varied interpretation. The article closes with what English readers may regard as a somewhat

of burdens and responsibilities for the German Empire than of profit,—if it is, indeed, the neutrality of Holland which is the most desirable condition for us,—this does not, of course, imply that we would not, upon any so



HENRY, PRINCE REGENT OF HOLLAND.

too spirited assertion of Germany's readiness to fly to the aid of Holland if necessary, though this is accompanied by a restatement of the total lack of any desire for annexation.

Even if we have shown that in a military union between Germany and Holland there is a greater prospect



QUEEN WILHELMINA OF HOLLAND.

licitation from the Dutch, willingly stake our last ship, our last man, to aid them in the defense of their home and their East Indian possessions. It might well be that after a long, arduous, common campaign the tried brotherhood would, by natural impulse, be riveted for all time. But it would, indeed, again be England's fault if she should suffer a threatening show of force on the part of the Dutch; for it is a necessary consequence of the overpowering naval dominion which England has maintained for a hundred years that no naval war is undertaken without her expressed or tacit consent, and this condition of things is not likely to be changed within a discernible time.

So long, then, as Holland is not attacked, concludes this writer, so long may the English drop their suspicions that the coast of Holland may be absorbed by Germany. The first lord of the English admiralty lately declared that the German marine was so greatly favored by circumstances that it could assemble almost its entire active forces in its home ports.

The Germans themselves have long been saying this, and they will surely not voluntarily do anything to forfeit this favorable state of things. The mere semblance of reinforcement through the addition of the power which a small contiguous country may develop will not entice them, closely akin though they feel to them through ties of blood.

GERMANY'S DESIGNS IN THE FAR EAST.

MORE than once has it been openly stated in French reviews that England is really responsible for the Russo-Japanese war. The French political writer, André Chéradame, in an article in the *Correspondant*, declares :

Russia believes, and believes rightly, that England and the adherents of Lord Curzon have made it their business to bring about the Russo-Japanese war. At the same time, Russia quite overlooks the policy of Germany, which for the last twenty-five years has been systematically directed to the definite object of getting Russia entangled in the affairs of the far East.

The game of Germany, played with so much skill and discretion, which M. Chéradame refers to is none other than that inaugurated by Bismarck. On many occasions the Iron Chancellor is said to have shown a passionate desire to oust Russia from all participation in European affairs and give her the fullest liberty of action in Asia. To his friends at St. Petersburg he is reported to have said : " Russia has nothing to do with the West ; her mission is in Asia, for there she represents civilization."

In 1880, during the most acute period of the negotiations between Russia and China respecting Kulja and the Ili territory, the action of the German minister, von Brandt, the writer explains, affords the most conclusive proof that at that time the chancellor of William I. was maneuvering to entangle Russia in the far East. Mr. von Brandt, who has taken so active a part in the affairs of eastern Asia and has done so much to introduce Germany into Chinese waters, was a disciple and an admirer of Bismarck.

In proof of his assertions, M. Chéradame proceeds to quote from the political correspondence of the minister of one of the great Western powers at Peking, then quite unknown to the public. When the Russo-Chinese conflict was at its height, and war was threatening, the diplomatist, whose name is withheld, wrote in effect to his government in the summer of 1880 :

Not only did Mr. von Brandt advise all the Christian powers to agree simultaneously to crush China and each seize what was most expedient, but he endeavored to push matters to the worst by exalting the advantages of a war between Russia and China. My recent conversations with my colleague, Mr. von Brandt, confirm me in the idea that encouragements to carry out such a strange policy must have been given by the cabinet of Berlin to that of St. Petersburg. As soon as the war should have broken out, Mr. von Brandt made no mystery of the intention of his government to lay hands on any well-chosen position whence the navy of Germany could usefully second the operations of her commerce or the action of her diplomacy at Peking.

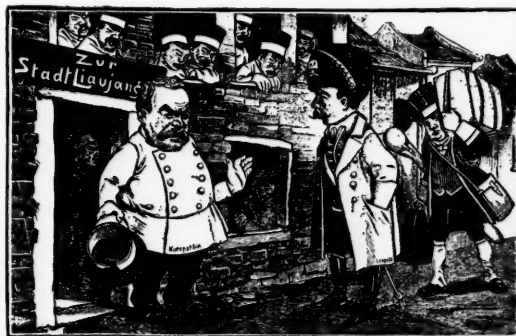
Again, early in 1881, the Western diplomatist

pointed out that while Mr. von Brandt was driving Russia to war, Germany was supplying arms to the Celestial Empire. He wrote :

I learn that 100,000 Mauser rifles have been sold by German merchants, and that over 20,000 have already been delivered. It might be of use to send these particulars to St. Petersburg, if only to enlighten the government of the Czar as to the views which inspire German policy in the presence of the difficulties pending between Russia and China.

The next instance of German policy in China cited by M. Chéradame is the Kiao-Chau affair. Here he shows that in 1891 Germany was entertaining secret plans with regard to it.

Lastly, M. Chéradame deals with the Russo-Japanese war. He thinks that Germany desired war, but hopes that Russia will win, for a victorious Russia on the Pacific is expected to be



WHY THE GERMAN PRINCE DID NOT GO TO MANCHURIA.

THE HOST: "I regret exceedingly, your highness, but it is impossible for me to put you up. Everywhere is crowded."

THE GUEST: "That settles it. Good-morning."

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

as profitable to Germany as the power of the Czar in Europe is disadvantageous. On the other hand, if Russia does not get Korea, and if she must abandon southern Manchuria to the Mikado, Germany will become the first enemy of Japan. Russia, embroiled in the affairs of the far East, will leave the Balkan peninsula, Constantinople, and Turkey in Asia almost free to German influence. Even if Russia triumph, it is certain that for many years she cannot be an "offensive" military danger to Germany, and thus the military power of Germany in the old world will be almost doubled without a farthing's extra expense for armaments. Germany seems to know how to deceive Russia, and Russia, concludes M. Chéradame, has always defended herself badly against her patient and tenacious German adversary.

HUNGARIAN STATESMEN AND THEIR PROBLEMS.

GEN. STEPHEN TÜRRE discusses, in the *Deutsche Revue*, the recent important elections in Hungary. The crucial point of the campaign was the *Ausgleich* (adjustment) with Austria. Tisza, its champion, was defeated; Kossuth, one of the chiefs of the opposition, came out triumphant, but his ally, Count Andrassy, is accounted an advocate of the *Ausgleich*, and that policy is likewise favored by a majority of the Diet. The two great parties are the Liberal party, under the leadership of Tisza, and the coalition party, followers of the ideas of 1848. Both of them equally lack coherence; their adherents are not sufficiently united by common principles and interests to insure their steering the ship of state aright. What the ruling party must do is to act according to existing circumstances, the exigencies of Hungary's condition, and expedience. General Türr himself advocates the *Ausgleich*, though he was, prior to 1867, a champion of the Kossuth policy of opposition to Austria. Since then, the nation has expressed itself in favor of the *Ausgleich* at every election. Kossuth, too, is receding from his extreme position. The latest political developments, however, indicate that the struggle will continue until Hungary wins her demands of to-day.

Finally, General Türr thinks that Hungary should not set an example of discord at a time when Europe is threatened with grave dangers, if the nations continue in their attitude of mutual jealousy. He quotes the saying of the Japanese statesman, Count Okuma: "The great powers of Europe are crumbling; we are the people of the future." "The American giant, too, is stretching itself," General Türr adds, and Europe should present a united front. The following are some of the more striking passages of the article:

In the momentous campaign which came to a close on the 26th of January the leaders were Count Julius Andrassy and Francis Kossuth on one side, and Count Stephen Tisza on the other. These are the sons of the three men who, somewhat differently grouped, confronted one another in 1867. . . . The object of the struggle then was the *Ausgleich* of Deák, just as it is to-day. Count Stephen Tisza, the defender of the *Ausgleich*, has been defeated. But whether that means the defeat of the *Ausgleich* is still a question. . . . Before 1866, Louis Kossuth wrote to me:

For the Hungarian nation there are but two names which can serve as a rallying cry, which have a decided meaning and are understood by the whole people. One is that of Deák; the other, mine. Deák's name signifies a constitutional Hungary under the Hapsburg dynasty, therefore a reconciliation with Austria. My name, on the contrary, signifies the independence of Hungary without any qualification, therefore struggle and war with Austria.

That was clearly spoken. But the nation has spoken no less clearly in the succeeding elections. . . . The Hungarian nation should, of course, go on developing, but upon the present well-proved basis. To destroy is easy; to build up, difficult. . . . The result of the four years' fight is a significant triumph for the name of Kossuth. The success is, however, not a complete one. The Kossuth who is triumphant to-day does not announce "struggle and war against the Hapsburg dynasty." The opponent whom he has conquered is the son of that Tisza who in 1867 combated the *Ausgleich* the most violently, and eight years later became Deák's heir. That is an omen!

Francis Kossuth is very far, we are reminded, from realizing the pure Kossuth programme. The end is so much more remote, "since he does



COUNT ANDRÁSSY, HUNGARIAN STATESMAN.

(The most prominent advocate of the *Ausgleich* with Austria.)

not steer directly toward it, evidently slackens his pace in his onward march, and even turns into by-paths which may lead him into quite another road. This is, naturally, no reproach. On the contrary, Francis Kossuth would do well to rest satisfied with the conquests which have been made."

AN ENGLISH PROGRAMME OF SOCIAL REFORM.

THE failure of the British Labor party in Parliament to advance the cause of social reform is the burden of a great part of Sir John Gorst's article an "Governments and Social Reform" in the *Fortnightly Review* for May. Sir John Gorst is evidently in more sympathy with the Irish Nationalists than with any other party. They have got a leader and a cause. When the question of underfed school children came before the House of Commons few of the Labor members took the trouble to attend, and the debate was a fiasco. Immediately afterward, the question came up of Irish fisheries, and instantly the scene changed. The enthusiasm, the discipline, the leadership, of the Nationalists "produced upon the House of Commons the impression that the whole Irish people took a much greater interest in Irish fish than the mass of the workers of the United Kingdom in the condition of their children."

As for the regular parties, both sides readily make the most extravagant promises, and neither side makes any effort to perform them.

WHAT MIGHT BE DONE.

The House is the House of the rich; they care more about motor cars than about the starving poor.

But one thing is certain. The condition of the people can be speedily and effectively improved by measures well within the power of the people themselves, and the rulers and Parliament which they create. Other nations have entered upon the path of progress, and are already far in advance of us. It is high time for us to follow an example which we ought to have set, and do something to remove the reproach of letting preventable misery and injustice exist among a third of our people.

As Sir John would have the Labor party go to the Irish Nationalists to learn a much-needed lesson, so he would have slow-witted John Bull go to the Germans. The first article in his programme would be to make public provision for insurance against sickness, accident, and old age.

In our country, the first is entirely voluntary; the insurance societies are under no public control, nor is their solvency guaranteed. The prudent insure; the unthrifty do not, but rely on charity or the poor law. It is clearly to the interest of the state that the sick should be cured as speedily and as efficiently as possible.

Even without putting any additional burden on the taxpayer, a great deal could be done to remedy this chaos, which produces extravagance and inefficiency. If hospitals and workhouse infirmaries were coördinated, and thus placed on some logical basis of relationship, more satisfactory results would be achieved. Accidents are partially provided against by the Employers' Liability Act, of which the imperfection is admitted by

everybody, but for the amendment of which no parliamentary time can be spared. Old-age pensions are a monument of the pledges and broken promises of political parties.

THE FEEDING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

Sir John Gorst would go to France and Belgium for suggestions as to feeding pupils in the schools.

In one most important section of the population, the children of the poor, governments could, with great ease, and at little cost, put an entire stop to destitution and suffering. The right to relief of a destitute starving child, forced by society to go to school and learn lessons, has never received proper attention. If a starving horse or ass were treated in the same way as hundreds of starving children are daily treated by public authority in our public elementary schools the offender would be taken up and punished by the criminal law.

THE SLAUGHTER OF THE INNOCENTS.

He would act upon the recommendation of the Berlin Conference, and legislate against allowing women to earn their living a month before and a considerable time after childbirth. He does not say, although he might have borrowed a hint from Denmark, how he would insure the mother against starvation during that period. He would facilitate the supply of milk, and train girls in the art and science of motherhood.

THE UNEMPLOYED.—LABOR COLONIES.

In dealing with the unemployed, he would again go to the foreigner for hints.

In Germany, there are colonies for the physically or mentally deficient and for the unemployed, besides experimental farms under the designation *Heimatkolonisten*, where unskilled laborers are taught agricultural work, fruit farming, building, and other useful occupations. They have not all of them proved an unqualified success, owing to the percentage of criminals and vagrants who find their way into these refuges. But perfection cannot be attained all at once, and when a better system of classification has been introduced it may be anticipated that a great advance will be made in Germany toward a solution of the unemployed difficulty. In France, Switzerland, Holland, and Belgium, there are many institutions of a similar character.

LABOR REGISTRIES.

He would add to his labor colony his labor registry.

Such registries secure that such labor as is being offered shall be made to go as far as possible, and they put an end to the anachronism of good workmen having to tramp in search of work in these days of telegraphs and telephones. In different parts of Germany there

are public labor bureaus managed jointly by employers and workmen, besides numerous relief stations and other institutions. These are in telephonic or telegraphic communication with one another, thus enabling a man in search of work to ascertain without

delay the locality where there is a prospect of his finding it. Some labor registries have been instituted here by private effort, and latterly by municipal bodies. But the central government has established no clearing house to bring local effort into coördination.

A STUDY OF THE CHICAGO TEAMSTERS.

OUTSIDE of Chicago, little was known of the teamsters' union prior to the strike which began last month. It happened, however, that a well-known economist and expert, Prof. John R. Commons, had made a thorough study of the organization that had been effected by the Chicago teamsters, and the facts that he had elicited are set forth at length in the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, of Harvard University.

It appears that the teamsters, who had always been classed as unskilled labor, have discovered their power only within the past three years. At first, the old-line trade-unionists were inclined to ridicule and discourage those who attempted to organize a union among them. An International Team Drivers' Union was chartered by the American Federation of Labor in 1899; this organization admitted to membership a team-owner if he operated not more than five teams. In 1902, the Chicago teamsters seceded from the national organization and formed a new union, including only teamsters and helpers. A driver who owned the team he drove was admitted, but if he owned a team driven by some one else he was excluded. Then followed the organization of the drivers by crafts, which is thus explained by Professor Commons:

Teamsters are employed in every industry. No craft is so necessary and universal. But teaming in one industry is distinct from teaming in another. The laundry driver has little in common with the coal teamster except horses and streets. His problems of unionism, such as methods of payment, hours, and discipline, are different. In 1894, coal teamsters, truck-drivers, and others were in a general union, just as they are to-day in smaller towns. But that union quickly disappeared. In 1886, something similar had occurred under the Knights of Labor. But in 1902 each industry was organized separately in its own "local." Though each is called a local union, it is more than local in the geographical sense. Each local is a distinct craft, with jurisdiction over the entire city for all workmen of its craft, and the principle recognized for all is the same as that explicitly stated by the Ice Wagon Drivers: "Our local union has the powers of self-government, known as local autonomy, and, if deemed advisable, to make such by-laws that will be beneficent to the local organization, such as admitting persons who own and operate one team, regulating initiation fees or dues, honorable withdrawal cards, trials, fines, suspensions, and expulsions in conformity with the general laws."

There are, of course, many cases where locals overlap; and, in order to avoid conflict of jurisdiction, each stable is assigned to the local to which 51 per cent. or more of its work belongs.

Thus, the teamsters of Chicago were the first to establish two principles new to the occupation,—craft autonomy and wage unionism. Starting with these principles, within two years there were organized 47 locals, from the Truck Drivers with over 5,000 members to the Dye House Drivers with 46. Afterward, this differentiation was found too fine, and some of the smaller locals were merged into others. Nearly all were organized during the first year. They created a joint executive counsel of seven delegates from each local with power over strikes; and in 1903 they amalgamated with the International Team Drivers, which meanwhile had changed its constitution to exclude employers. The organization now is known as the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, with 821 locals in some 300 cities.

INTEREST OF TEAM-OWNERS.

In order to understand the strategic position of the teamsters' union, it is necessary to consider the peculiar nature of the business. An important element of the rapid growth in recognition of the organization was the peculiar interest taken in it by some of the team-owners, whom Professor Commons classifies in two groups,—those who follow teaming for a living and those whose teaming is an adjunct to their general business. The latter group includes the proprietors of department stores, the meat markets, grocers and butchers, brewers, the largest manufacturers, the milk dealers, lumber dealers, railway express companies, ice companies, and some of the wholesale merchants. The former group includes truck-owners, expressmen, van-owners, liverymen, commission team-owners, and, to a lesser degree, coal team-owners, ice-wagon owners, and smaller teaming contractors. Many of the manufacturers, and most of the wholesale merchants and commission houses, do their teaming through contractors. In the case of the manufacturers and wholesale merchants, the teamsters' wages form but a small part of the total expenses. With the retail merchants, the proportion is larger, but with the contracting team-owners the wages of teamsters and helpers are from 50 to 75 per cent. of their total expenses. Competition among these contractors is chiefly a question of the wages and hours of the

competing firms. Thus, as Professor Commons points out, the manufacturer and wholesale merchant are interested in keeping wages low; the team-owner in keeping them equal.

The team-owner has, therefore, welcomed and encouraged the organization of the teamsters, notwithstanding an extraordinary increase in the rates of wages, because the union equalized competition. In taking this attitude, his position has not been the same as that of the merchant or manufacturer, whose cost of trucking was increased, whether done directly or by contract. One consequence is that the team-owners,—by which will be meant those with whom teaming is their business and not an adjunct,—have organized associations, not only as employers to negotiate with the unions, but also as contractors to regulate rates of cartage and livery. The principal associations of this kind are the Chicago Team Owners, dealing with the truck-drivers; the Furniture Movers and Expressmen's Association, dealing with the Van Teamsters and Helpers and the Baggage and Parcel Delivery Drivers and Helpers; the Commission Team Owners, dealing with the Commission Drivers; and four liverymen's associations, dealing with the Hack, Coupé, and Livery Drivers. These associations, by joint agreements, determine the rates of wages and the hours and conditions of labor; and the scales thus determined are the union

scales paid also by merchants and manufacturers not members of the association to their teamsters employed directly. Many of the other teamsters' unions have joint agreements with employers' associations; but such associations, being composed of merchants or manufacturers, are loose and informal, while the associations just mentioned are compact and permanent, some of them with bonds and forfeits, binding them, not only to the scale of wages, but also to the scale of prices.

It appears that the one-team owner who drives his wagon is a kind of connecting link between the ancient guild and modern organization of employers and workmen on class lines. He is eligible either to the teamsters' union or to the team-owners' association. As a member of the owners' association, he is expected to observe the scale of cartage; and as a member of the union, the owners ask that he be made to observe that scale. If this owner is an ice-wagon driver, he requires a helper, and so is not eligible to the union; but he is given a card certifying that he employs a union helper and "is entitled to all the courtesy and respect of members of the I. B. of T."

THE SANITARY IMPORTANCE OF THE MILK-SUPPLY.

AN exhaustive discussion of the importance of a pure milk-supply is contributed to the illustrated review *Kringsjaa*, of Christiania, by Dr. Olav Johan Olsen. The milk-supply of a modern city, this writer insists, is almost, if not quite, as important a factor as the water-supply. In the course of his long study of the subject, Dr. Olsen emphasizes particularly the absolute necessity of a pure milk-supply for children. It may be positively asserted, he declares, that the ratio of death among infants in cities has been in direct proportion to the ease or difficulty with which a supply of fresh milk is obtainable, and the price of the same. Dr. Olsen considers in detail the various methods of adulterating milk. The most common method, he reminds us, is that of adding water, or, as it is commonly referred to, "baptizing the milk." This, however, can easily be detected. Then the milk is skimmed, and all the cream removed. This adulteration can readily be shown by chemical analysis. Another kind of adulteration, much more difficult to discover, however, is that of feeding the cow before milking with salt and preparations to produce much (but thin) milk. Cream is particularly exposed to adulteration; starch is frequently added to it, and even more injurious substances.

In most civilized countries there are severe

penalties for the adulteration of milk. There has not, however, been sufficient legislation on this subject, Dr. Olsen believes. He is particularly severe on certain methods of milk-preservation. Such substances as borax, formaline, and salicylic acid are almost always injurious, except in the minutest quantities. There are cases on record of poisoning through borax in milk. Milk is frequently a means of carrying contagious diseases, particularly since the supply for the large cities has to be transported such great distances. This business grows so much that there is great difficulty in controlling and supervising it. Inflammations of many kinds are caused by impure milk, and, above all, tuberculosis is brought to children in this way. Some physicians deny this, but those who believe in it are increasing in number. The fact that certain contagious diseases are mainly spread by milk is proved by the presence of these diseases among the upper classes, which drink a great deal of milk, and by the fact that when there is a milk epidemic these classes are always first stricken. Dr. Olsen believes that scarlet fever is very often spread by impurities in milk. Indeed, he asserts it can be proved by statistics that in the larger cities of the world abstainers from alcohol who drink milk are more exposed to contagion than those who drink beer at their meals.

Milk used by city consumers generally passes through three hands before it reaches its destination. This increases price and chance for adulteration. In some of the large European cities, ideal establishments for the distribution of milk exist. That of Dr. Bolle, in Berlin, is mentioned. Dr. Bolle superintends the distribution of the milk-supply himself. He receives hundreds of thousands of quarts daily, and gathers it into his own storehouses, where it is pasteurized. That which is not delivered within a certain time is used in the dairies, and the whole

establishment is supervised by first-class physicians and chemists. Paris and Copenhagen have similar institutions. Consumers who get their milk from modern, controlled dairies, which never sell their product when it is older than twenty-four to thirty hours after milking, are practically proof against contagion. Consumers, however, Dr. Olsen advises, should not keep milk in an ice-box, but in an airy and cool room, covered with clean paper. Germs and dust are thus kept away. The milk is also thus guarded from flies, which are the real carriers of contagion.

THE LIÈGE EXHIBITION.

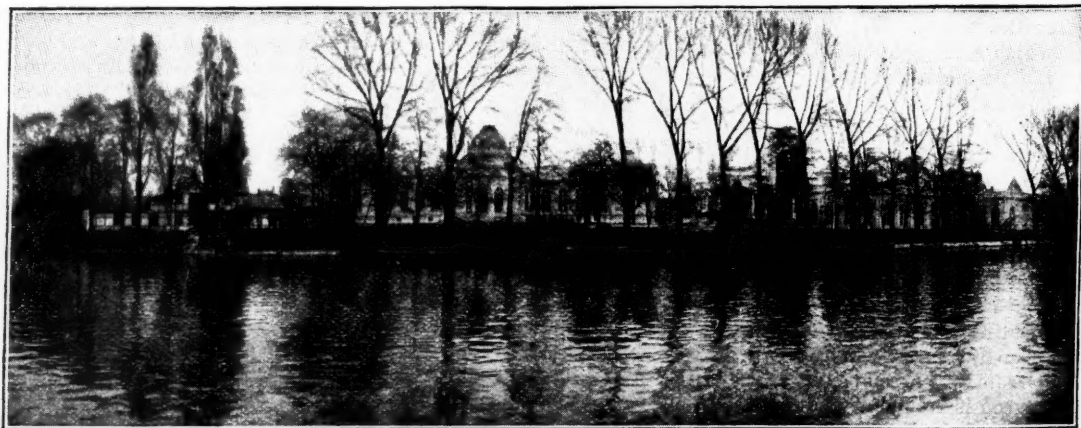
THE exhibition at Liège will coincide, says a writer in the *Nouvelle Revue* of April 1, with the celebration of a national festival dear to all Belgians, for it is just seventy-five years since the independence of Belgium was proclaimed, and the Belgians have certainly not forgotten that their emancipation was provoked by the French July Revolution, and that, so far from being content with proclaiming with enthusiasm the principle of nationalities, France came to their aid and ran the serious risk of offending the powers of the Holy Alliance. Never during the last three-quarters of a century have the relations between France and Belgium been other than most cordial.

Liège is a powerful and magnificent industrial city, with a population of one hundred and eighty thousand. Nowhere is it possible for the observer to discern so easily as at Liège how great has been the struggle between the feudal ages and the modern spirit.

The exhibition covers an enormous area on

the banks of the Meuse and the Ourthe. It is surrounded by green park. Old Liège will occupy the spot between the Ourthe and the Meuse, and will form a citadel, giving access to the industrial section. The fine arts exhibits are in the Jardin d'Acclimatation, and adjoin the pavilions of the French colonies. The French section occupies as much space as all the other foreign sections together.

Since the first international exhibition, at the London Crystal Palace, in 1851, railways and the telegraph have transformed the world, and have overcome the obstacles of distance. Electricity has followed, and has revolutionized industry. Lastly, there has been a moral transformation in international relations, and the nations are gradually learning the wisdom of the principle of arbitration. But as war begins to cease the industrial struggle becomes more and more keen. Thus, foreign exhibitions are to the industries of France as so many battlefields where victories must be won.



THE EXHIBITION BUILDINGS AT LIÈGE.

THE MUNICIPALIZATION OF BAKERIES IN ITALY.

ONE of the reforms most urged by Italian Socialists is the municipalization of bread-making, and several communes have tried the experiment. The commune of Catania began the venture in October, 1902, and a report of the results up to last July has just been published. Antonio Ciaccheri analyzes the report in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence), and comments upon it. The commune found ready a fine new bakery that furnished the plant without the expense necessary at Palermo, where \$70,000 was put into ovens and model mills. The deficit at Catania, for the whole period of twenty months, amounts to 112,000 lire, or \$22,000, a large proportion of which is the 660 lire a day indemnity to the former bakers, who are now given the monopoly of sale at a fixed profit. Only a few months ago, however, these bakers became dissatisfied, and, reinforced by other citizens of like mind, created a number of street disturbances. Another disadvantage of the plan is the superabundance of labor, which the municipality is practically forced to provide for by shortening hours or employing more bakers than are absolutely necessary. In fact, these benefits to the laboring class, as well as increase of wages, are promised in advance in the Socialist campaigns. The municipalization has not altered the price of the best bread, although the second and third grades have been sold about half a cent a pound cheaper than elsewhere. The quality, however, instead of improving, has been often worse. During the last month of the investigation, eight out of thirteen tests and two out of ten others showed spoiled bread. The only good result the writer

finds is that the operations are removed from dark, damp, dirty quarters to more hygienic places, a result which might have been brought about by other means. Signor Ciaccheri makes the following comments on municipalization in general :

Certainly, the municipalization of public services merits study and warm approval, but only where the function of the franchise-holder proves a duplication and a useless and damaging form of parasitism ; where industry does not exist, or has an utterly simple form ; where control, instead of being in a numerous body of functionaries, is in bookkeepers, in machines, in constant or semi-constant statistics of production and consumption. But where hazard and the technique of a complicated and varied manufacture enter in, where the purchase of raw materials is in itself a source of speculation and the goods and the products need constant and shrewd surveillance, the work of an impersonal manufacturer, such as a commune, cannot succeed well. Only open competition, the law of supply and demand, the free and conscientious forces of producers and workmen associated in the same work of attaining the greatest ends with the least means, can give the right equilibrium by which industry lives, thrives, and perfects itself. Make the commune the grand monopolist of bread, of flour, of pastry, of meat, of all necessary food products, and you will have, as an economic law, first stagnation and then retrogression. The only class to benefit, perhaps, and that only temporarily and at the expense of the others, would be the laborers, who, made strong in their privileged condition, would impose an increase of wages to which the commune would have to submit, with the result of seeing public wealth absorbed by almost imperceptible but inevitable processes to an artificial collectivism with all the defects of collectivism but without the only quality that would render it less odious,—that of being true, universal collectivism, and not one created for the benefit of a single class.

AN ITALIAN ESTIMATE OF MARK TWAIN.

LIVIA PRUNI gives, in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), an appreciative sketch of Mark Twain, showing a wide knowledge of him and of his works, only one of which, "The Prince and the Pauper," has been translated into Italian. An attempt is made in this article to render several short stories into Italian, after the acknowledgment that the humor is almost untranslatable. In fact, the article begins by noting that no language but English has a word for "humor," which is found only in English, American, and a few German writers. The writer continues :

Humor has not the brilliant vivacity of French wit, bursting from malicious phrases like a laugh from the lips of a pretty girl ; it is not the expression of a frank

and careless gayety that overflows in certain tales of Boccaccio, in certain chapters of Berni, in so many pages of the inexhaustible Rabelais. Humor is finer, more philosophical, above all more suggestive, always slightly sarcastic, and touched at times with an involuntary, quiet sentiment of sadness. The humorist knows how to catch the comic and ridiculous side of a weakness, an idiosyncrasy, or any moral abnormality, and quietly ridicules it, keeping up an imperturbable seriousness that gives great effect to the joke. There is no treatise on literature defining this kind of wit, and in fact such a definition would be extremely difficult. How can one analyze the subtle magic that wrests a smile from you when reading certain scenes of Shakespeare, certain pages of Cervantes, or of our Manzoni ? However, definitions abound for that which the French call *esprit* and the English *wit*. According to Samuel Johnson, wit is a faculty of the mind that unexpectedly combines dissimilar ideas, and Peruzzi, speaking of

Berni, observes that the principal characteristic of his writings is the genius with which the author finds resemblances between things entirely different, and the opportune use of strange metaphors and comparisons, sometimes sublime, and perhaps all the droller when considered in connection with the subject they illustrate. But the humorist, while using such artifices, does not content himself with them. He does not aim to take you by assault with unexpected couplings of labored brilliancy, but conquers you gradually, and knows how to give to his phrase an apparently serious tone that wins the reader at first sight, and at last draws from him a laugh without his really knowing how the trick was done. In this the Americans are first, and they show in it an imagination full at the same time of energy and of ingenuity, a childish gayety united with a quizzical good humor that delights in exaggeration, in impossibilities, in endless oddities, an infinite art of not expressing the thought all at once, but of veiling it subtly, a continual intention of involving in a single joke both the object of the discourse and the reader himself.

As an example, the writer quotes Mark Twain's description of the people of Civita Vecchia, who were not rendered proud by the possession of other insects than the flies they spent their leisure in catching. Continuing, the writer says:

One characteristic of Anglo-Saxon humor should be specially held in mind,—it is always wholesome and clean. In Italy and France, wit too often is based on obscenity. The true humorist has no need of this string to his lyre, and flees from *décolleté* phrases as being too easy effects.

Further on, in the course of the sketch of Mr. Clemens' life, this characteristic is noted in him: "Needless to say that Mark Twain's jokes are never licentious. His wit never shines at the

expense of modesty, nor offends any belief,—no small merit in our days." After noting his later tendency to wish to be taken seriously, and his spiritualistic and "fad" proclivities, the writer says:

By frequent travel, by contact with all that the European world has of most intellectual, his culture, begun rather late, has been marvelously extended; and his mind, ever democratic, is now more liberal toward all that is not of North America. Indeed, many American prejudices provoke some of his most happily sarcastic phrases. He is, perhaps, no longer so convinced and haughty in his disdain for the present European world, that in truth has many sins, but which has for advantage over America that it has fashioned a life certainly less lucrative, but also less agitated and less deprived of satisfaction for the intellect and sentiment. Europe has at present a lively fascination for the old humorist, and, in Europe, France and Italy please him most. Did he not maltreat us Italians enough in his first travel books! Neither was he all wrong, given our miserable political state. But now he has made amends, and the young, rising nation has all his sympathy. We shall see soon, since he is never idle, if some of the pages that he will write in the green tranquillity of the Florentine villa where he is spending these months will be inspired by the beautiful and merry Florence, and we prophesy that the inspiration will be like that of former times,—bold and blithe, without too many social and scientific themes. We are happy to conclude these lines by saying that he has the honor of having kept himself ever an enthusiast for liberty, for truth, for justice, a bitter enemy of every kind of oppression, and that such sentiments have inspired him to write hundreds of generous pages, and justly procured him the sympathy of persons of every country, of every faith, of every party,—the greatest eulogy and the highest prize of an honest conscience and an indomitable activity such as his.

HENRY H. ROGERS—MONOPOLIST.

AN intimate study of the vice-president and acting executive of the Standard Oil Company, Mr. Henry H. Rogers, appears in the *World's Work* from the pen of John S. Gregory. Mr. Rogers is an avowed monopolist, says Mr. Gregory. When a boy, Mr. Rogers believed in the concentration of power. He organized his schoolmates for offensive and defensive purposes. One of the games was playing war. When he left school he became a clerk in the Union Grocery Store. It was one of a chain of stores throughout the State that, by means of combination, was able to buy goods lower than individual competitors and thereby undersell them.

This idea made a profound impression on him as he weighed sugar and counted eggs. It has been a cardinal business principle with him ever since. He has waged relentless business conflict and always marshaled his forces so that competition has been made impossible.

Business with him is war. He is to-day the active head of the Standard Oil Company, around whose far-flung battle line a great industrial combat is being fought.

Mr. Rogers, however, has other interests besides making money for himself. He has found time to render a distinct service to American literature, and his friendship with Mark Twain reveals a phase of his character that is little known. It began long before he knew Mr. Clemens. Once, years ago, Mr. Rogers read "Roughing It." He liked it so much that he read it again. Then he read it to his wife and to his children. He said, "If I ever have the chance to help the man who wrote it, I will." And the chance came.

When Webster & Company (of which Mark Twain was a member) failed, every asset of the famous humorist, including the copyrights of his books, went down in

the wreck. It was what is called "a bad failure." Mr. Clemens surrendered everything. Not long afterward, he walked into the Murray Hill Hotel one night with Dr. Rice, a well-known New York specialist. A man with a white mustache was seated on a divan.

"There's a man you ought to know," said Dr. Rice, "and he'd like to know you. That's Henry H. Rogers."

Dr. Rice presented Mr. Clemens. Mr. Rogers knew of the Webster failure. He asked permission to be of service. In forty-eight hours he was managing the author's business affairs. He gave his time, worth thousands of dollars a day, to recoup the fortunes of a broken literary man. Into it he put all his business acumen and energy. He found that Webster & Company owed Mrs. Clemens personally \$65,000 cash lent from her own pocket, upon the firm's notes. He made her a preferred creditor, and to secure the claim gave her the copyrights of her husband's books. In this way the books were saved for Mr. Clemens. They have

been his principal assets. They were worth more to him then than the gift of half a million dollars in cash.

Mr. Rogers saw Mr. Clemens safely through these trying business troubles. But he did not stop there. Ever since, he has, with a few others, constituted himself a guardian of Mr. Clemens' business affairs.

Last year he aided in consummating the deal for the publication of Mark Twain's complete works, which placed the author beyond financial care for the rest of his days. Out of that service has grown an affectionate friendship between the men, remarkable for its contrast,—on the one hand the astute, vigilant man, with his finger always on the business pulse, and on the other, the lovable, dreamy humorist. They meet often, play euchre, and go on yachting trips.

GEORGE BERNARD SHAW.

THE most talked-of playwright in England at the present time seems to be George Bernard Shaw. A few weeks since, Sloane Square, London, was almost blocked with carriages when the King was pleased to go to see "John Bull's Other Island," and now we have both the great British quarterlies treating Mr. Shaw quite seriously as a dramatist of genius and a serious reformer. The *Edinburgh Review* considers him "as a reformer—a voice crying in the wilderness of trivial work and mean ambition, a voice still hoarse with exhortation, still a little forced from having had to carry over the heads of a crowd."

His supreme gift as a dramatist is to produce an impression of life which seems, and which is, more real than reality. His plays seem to write themselves.

Mr. Shaw contrives to make even his most serious work simmer with laughter, but the humor is evolved, not added; epigrams are not stuck on the outside of the talk like sugared almonds, and even his wit suffers, as it should suffer, when removed from the setting.

Considering the difficulty of seeing Mr. Shaw's plays on the stage, one must be grateful to his ingenuity in making them acceptable in the study.

REFORMER.

He regards romance "as the great heresy to be swept off from art and life—as the food of modern pessimism

and the bane of modern self-respect," and declares that "idealism, which is only a flattering name for romance in politics and morals," is as obnoxious to him as romance in ethics or religion.

Now, perverse as such views may seem to those who never have taken the road beside a reformer, they will be recognized as inevitable by those who have.

PROBLEM POSER.

Problem has ever been at the root of his work. No drama without conflict; no conflict without something to decide. All life worthy the name is a problem; and every play that would reproduce life must be either a problem or a platitude. A people that is unconscious of having problems to solve, that has outlived its interest in the interpretation of life, is beginning to be at the end of its intellectual resources. Senile decay is as surely indicated in a nation as in a man by a dull acquiescence in the immutability of things; and the literature of a waning race is almost always diverted from the great questions of conduct before it expires in æsthetic trivialities. Hence, Mr. Shaw's determination "to accept problem as the normal material of the drama," and his understanding of drama as "the presentation in parable of the conflict between man's will and his environment," are a pledge at least of vitality in his ideas, and vitality working itself out as creative philosophy is the supreme necessity to the art of the stage.

PHILOSOPHER.

Of Mr. Shaw's philosophy a good deal has been said. It is, indeed, a little too novel for the creation of popular drama. But years have already modified its novelty to himself, and as he shortens sail the years will bring the van of the public within more certain hail of him. The defiant assertiveness of the earlier plays has given place to tolerance.

Greater work than he has done he may yet do; but it must be conceived by a less contentious spirit and wrought in a serener air. He has done for us a deal of much-needed preaching; but while it needs but the understanding of what men should not be to equip the Preacher, to the Pardoner must be discovered the deeper mystery of what they are.



MR. GEORGE BERNARD SHAW.

THE ORIGIN OF THE WELSH BIBLE.

THE world-wide attention which is now directed to the Welsh revival, and consequently to Welsh religion in general, invests with special interest an article in the *Church Quarterly* on the translators of the Welsh Bible. The "three illustrious scholars and patriots" whose combined labors gave the Welsh their Bible were Richard Davies, Bishop of St. David's; William Salesbury, the scholar-squire of Llanrwst, and William Morgan, Bishop of St. Asaph.

Davies was born in 1501, the son of the rector of Gyffin, who, though a Catholic priest, was married; studied at Oxford; married in 1550, and settled down as parish priest at Burnham; fled to Geneva when Mary came to the throne; returned on Elizabeth's accession, and was by her made Bishop, in 1560, of St. Asaph's, and next year of St. David's. In 1563 an act was passed commanding the five Welsh bishops to arrange for the translation into Welsh of the Scriptures and Liturgy in four years. Bishop Davies undertook the task, and called to his aid Salesbury, an Oxford friend, who had formed the idea of reviving the Welsh language, had published "the first book ever issued in the vernacular," a work entitled "The Welshman's Common Sense," and had also published "Llitha Ban," a book which comprised translations of the Epistles and Gospel. This last was "the first recorded appearance in print of any considerable portion of the Holy Scriptures in the Welsh tongue." Salesbury took in hand the version of

the New Testament, Davies of the Prayer Book. Before the close of 1567, both these tasks were complete and were given to the world.

This achievement saved the Welsh language from sinking into disuse, and established for future generations the highest standard of the language. Services in Welsh were introduced in all the parishes. Salesbury's work has been charged by some critics with being pedantic, rugged, and surfeited with English words and expressions. But it is remarkable for the wealth of its vocabulary, and the translator had often to coin for himself his theological terms.

The two scholars were proceeding with a joint translation of the Old Testament when they quarreled hopelessly over the etymology of one word (the word is not recorded) and parted company. Much progress had, however, been made, and the manuscripts were, the reviewer thinks, open to the use of Morgan, who, in 1588, seven years after Davies' death, published a complete and revised translation of the whole Bible and Apocrypha. "The final version of 1620" was the work of Bishop Richard Parry and his brother-in-law, Dr. John Davies, of Mallwyd. The reviewer awards the chief glory of the work to Bishop Davies and Salesbury, and by implication to Salesbury, who, sole and unaided, performed the decisive and difficult task of the first translation. It is interesting that the family whence this first translator sprang was "made in Germany," deducing name and origin from Salzburg.

PLANT GALLS.

THE habit that some insects have of depositing their eggs in the stems or the leaves of plants, where the wormlike larvæ hatch and live until they are ready to metamorphose into the winged form of adult life, reacts on the plant to produce the peculiar deformations of structure called galls, that are of so much interest, both from the standpoint of factors influencing the mode of growth of a plant and from the remarkable nature of the galls themselves, one kind of gall, growing on the oak, having come into especial prominence on account of its use in the manufacture of invisible ink, while the same gall, mixed with certain chemicals, makes a very permanent kind of ink which in some States is required by law for certain records.

The subject is discussed by Dr. M. C. Howard in the last number of *Annales des Sciences Naturelles* (Paris). Some galls, as he shows, are pro-

duced by internal, others by external, parasites; they may appear at the end of the stem, or farther back, between the nodes of the stem, and in some instances they are found even on the roots of the plant. The same kind of insect always produces the same form of gall on the same kind of plant. One insect attacks the petiole of the poplar leaf and produces a hollow, spherical gall about half an inch in diameter, provided with a narrow slit on one side through which the insects may come and go, and a myriad of them use this as a winter residence.

Another gall, on Bermuda grass, resembles a long braid of hair. The parasite in this case takes up its abode in the axis of the stalk of grass, and by its presence interferes with the growth of the shoot, so that the spaces between leaves are much shortened and the leaves themselves cannot attain full development, becoming

more like scales. These stunted leaves, folded around the stem, give the characteristic braided appearance.

In May, the larva of a certain fly hatches out in the stem of thyme, near the tip of the leaf-stalk, with the result that the stem never lengthens to any extent, the leaves grow very little and lose their color, and the general appearance becomes that of a small cone.

Another kind of fly spends its larval life in the tip of the ground hemlock stem, affecting its growth in such a way that a loose cone is formed of the half-grown, curved leaves.

Another gall-fly pierces the stem of young growing wheat to deposit its eggs, and when the larvæ hatch a small gall is formed that stunts the growth of the wheat and causes great loss to the wheat-growers.

All life is mysterious. What the formative, controlling principles of the simplest organism are, nobody knows. Whether the dynamics of life depend upon something related to chemical affinity, or to molecular arrangement, or to some entirely different condition, cannot be answered. Each individual begins life as a minute, proto-

morphic mass of living matter which in some way synthesizes non-living material into substance like itself, and throughout existence compels it to take a certain form that is constant, in the main, for a given species, although subject to some slight variations, perhaps, as the result of living under more or less favorable conditions.

But in the case of the formation of a gall, an external influence comes in with the egg and larva of the insect, and so affects the vital processes that the plant grows in a way entirely foreign to itself,—a hollow sphere grows where a smooth stem should be, or a knotted woody structure with no resemblance whatever to the leaf that should have developed, normally. What is the nature of the new principle that produces such an effect? The controlling principle already in force becomes so modified under the action of the new principle that something entirely different results, capable of molding a new type of structure, but as to the real nature of this, very little can be said. Whatever it is, it affects the growth of the tissues in every particular, changing the form of the constituent cells, and the nature of their secretions.

LATE ESTIMATES OF THE YUKON'S WEALTH.

GOLD-MINING in the Klondike region attracts comparatively little attention at the present time, and little would be known of the prospects of that country but for an occasional magazine article like that contributed by Mr. C. M. Woodworth to the *Canadian Magazine* for February. Mr. Woodworth has made a careful tabulation of the entire production of Yukon gold from the time of its discovery to the close of 1904, and he disregards the figures shown in the Canadian government reports as too small, since the royalty tax, while it existed, was a constant incentive for the concealment of the true figures. Every fair test, he thinks, fixes the total at about, or in excess of, one hundred and thirty millions of dollars. This is nearly twice the amount of the entire placer output of British Columbia from 1858 to 1903, inclusive.

As to the question, "Is the Klondike nearly worked out?" two answers may be given: "If the conditions and methods of mining which prevailed in 1898 were still in vogue, the answer would be in the affirmative. At that time, drifts paying less than \$8 to the cubic yard, or five cents to the pan of gravel, were abandoned; wages were \$15 a day, and no machinery was used. Present conditions, however, are altogether different; ground yielding two cents per

pan, or \$3.25 to the cubic yard, is now considered as good pay, while a drift bearing half that pay would not be abandoned if the pay-streak were continuous and not too thin. Steam shovels and hydraulic works are coming into use. By methods now in common use, gravels yielding from \$2 per ton upward are commonly worked, but with the steam shovels and hydraulic workings already installed, ground yielding fifty cents to the cubic yard on the average has already been worked at a profit. In California and other countries, where hydraulic mining is in vogue, gravels yielding less than ten cents to the cubic yard have been worked at a profit. In the Yukon, however, the fact that much of the gravel is frozen, together with the remoteness of the territory, will prevent such cheap workings. It is estimated, however, by this writer, that twenty-five cents to the cubic yard should pay handsomely. In the region lying within one hundred miles east of Dawson, it is believed that there are more than fifty square miles of hills, carrying a depth of from 25 to 125 feet of pay gravel which will yield an average of more than twenty-five cents to the cubic yard. At least twenty square miles of hills in the Klondike basin are much richer. One square mile of Paradise Hill, on Hunker

Creek, will produce fifty millions of dollars, of which one-half will be profit. The hills of the Klondike basin will produce, it is believed, more than eight hundred millions of dollars, while those in the Indian and Stewart river districts will produce at least half as much. These will be worked by hydraulic systems. As for the

creeks, many of these have already been worked over by wasteful methods, while others have not yet been prospected. These old claims will in future be worked over by steam shovels or by hydraulic elevators, and it is estimated that they will produce one-half as much more as they have already produced.

THE POLES AND THE LANGUAGE QUESTION IN RUSSIA.

THAT the bloody outbreaks in Russian Poland, which have been so prominent a feature of the events of the past few months, are something more than a passing phenomenon, and that the question of a rehabilitated Polish nation is one of the pressing issues of the future, both for Russia and for Germany, is the emphatic opinion of a careful writer in the *Deutsche Monatsschrift*. He reviews concisely, but with considerable minuteness of detail, the economic situation of the Poles, not only in Russian Poland proper, but in the largely Polish provinces of Lithuania and Little Russia. In the last-named province, the Poles are making comparatively little progress economically; but both in Lithuania and in Poland proper, they are gaining more and more the upper hand, by virtue of superior ability and culture. In Lithuania, this is manifested chiefly in the domain of agriculture; in Poland proper, it is shown in the rapid industrial and commercial development of recent years. In this connection it is pointed out that the Jews in Poland, and especially the educated Jews, are thoroughly identified with the Polish spirit, and "omit no opportunity to give evidence of this feeling." Coming to the question of politics and parties, the writer points out that there are two classes of parties, the social and the political, and it is the social parties that he regards as of the greater importance.

The party of greatest importance, this writer continues, is that of the "Ugodowce." It constitutes the National-Polish section of the Democratic Jewish-Slavonic party. Its plans can be understood only in the light of the Panslavist ideas.

It holds out an attainable end, not a Utopia, like the object of the Pan-Poles,—a "fatherland from sea to sea." The Ugodowce have thus formulated their political aspirations: Russian Poland, along with Galicia, is to be a member of a great Slavic confederacy of states, in which Russia (Muscovy) is to assume the hegemony. Within the limits of this confederacy, the Polish tongue is to be the language of the country, and Russia is to have no right to interfere in any of the inner concerns of the state. Customs duties between the individual states are, of course, inadmissible. And here the modern, commercial Pole comes to the fore. It is no longer

possible for Russian Poland, with its highly developed industries, to exist to-day without Russia as an outlet; unless, indeed, it were to have its own export harbor whence it could send out its productions into the markets of the world. The reacquisition of Posen, etc., is spoken of as merely a question of time; this is to be peacefully achieved by the proletarians, whose hands are needed in German industry.

The Poles, and with them all non-Russians, regard the Muscovite as incapable of exercising the hegemony in a Slav state, because Russia proper, as compared with the regions bordering upon it, is at least two centuries behind in the development of its civilization.

But for another Slavic group, outside of the Poles, to assume the leadership would be out of the question. The only point for the Poles, meanwhile, is to remain Poles and to enlist the sympathies of the Russian educated classes, and these classes are to-day advancing decidedly in the direction desired by the Poles.

The Poles' Fight for Their Language.

The struggle for rights in Russian Poland to-day may be of two kinds, observes the Polish *Zgoda* (Concord), of Chicago,—the struggle for a right which is, and the struggle for a right which is not.

In the first case, the nation should resist all demands of the local authorities that are in excess of the existing Russian law. In the second case, the nation should claim the just and due rights taken away from it at some former time by the formal decree of the supreme authority of the state. The best instance of the first kind of struggle is the resolution adopted by a number of communes in the kingdom of Poland* demanding that the minutes of the communal assemblies, and all the correspondence of the commune, be conducted in the Polish language. There is no formal law removing from communal business the vernacular language in favor of the Russian language. The gradual dislodging of the Polish language from the commune was the work of the local Russian officials, who availed themselves of the ignorance of the peasants and imposed on them a foreign language where the law allowed the Poles to use their own language. The return to the Polish language in the communes is, therefore, a

* That part of Russian Poland which was formed by the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, into a "kingdom" united to Russia merely by the bond of a personal union, the Russian Emperor being King of Poland. In the eyes of the Russians, the "kingdom of Poland" alone constitutes Russian Poland.

struggle for a right which is, against a wrong which, according to law, ought not to be. In such a struggle, even the Russian Government cannot employ coercion, if the people will abide unitedly by their rights. The police may, of course, molest the leaders and advisers, and even arrest and oppress them, but the public in general will not suffer as much as it would in the case of an armed revolution, while the sacrifice of individuals will be highly beneficial and instructive. Another such case will be the banishment from the common schools of the Russian language as the language of instruction. There is a law in the Russian Empire that the state language is to be the language of instruction in the higher and secondary schools. For the common schools, however, the Russian code has kept the native language of the local population. It is just on this basis that the Jews teach their children in the Hebrew and Jewish languages in their schools; the Tatars teach theirs in the Tatar and Arabic languages; the Armenians in the Armenian language; and the Germans in the German language. On the Poles, however, the local educational authorities imposed the Russian language in the town schools, and the peasants did not resist, judging, in their simplicity, that there is such a law, and that it must, therefore, be so.

In some villages the peasants have already set about the regulation of their schools on the basis of the existing law. That work, says the *Zgoda*, "will be a truly national, patriotic, and beneficial work."

For almost forty years the government has violated, in Poland, the cardinal principle of pedagogics,—throwing out honest and learned professors of Polish nationality and filling the schools of its Polish provinces with Muscovite ragamuffins whom the Muscovites themselves did not want in their own schools,—but the Polish parents have sent their children to these schools, so as to secure to them the school diploma, without which it is hard to help one's self in life. . . . And now, after so many years of this torture, the Polish nation has awaked, and has instituted a school strike. The government has, it is true, closed the schools, but it cannot keep them closed forever, for that would be an international scandal, and to such things the Russian Government has always been very sensitive. If, therefore, the Poles persevere in their opposition; if the parents will not be daunted by the loss to their children of a year or two of the school, the government will have to enter into some negotiations with the community, and make some concessions.

We read in the dispatches of March 20 that Henrik Sienkiewicz has raised his voice on this question. In an article which has attracted the attention of the whole world, the great writer represents the entire abnormality of the school in Russian Poland. The world, which had not cared to read what had been written of this matter by hundreds of Polish journalists during scores of years, has now perused this voice of the only Polish writer whom it knows and whom it trusts.

On the courage of the Polish community, therefore, will depend the further course of this movement. The

community should not submit to the government; the government will have to yield to the nation. This will be a struggle for rights in the full sense of that expression. It will be possible to raise and wage many other struggles of this kind, without plunging the whole land in a bath of blood and fire. In those struggles there will be a sufficient number of dramatic episodes, opportunities enough for the manifestation of heroism, victims and sufferings enough; but there will be neither a universal calamity nor a universal havoc.

With the object, then, of turning Russia's plight to the advantage of the Polish nation, the Polish National Democratic party, or, as it is popularly called, the Pan-Polish party, undertook, as the first step of a broad political action, the struggle for the Polish language in the commune. The political programme of which this struggle is the first step aims at the broad autonomy of the kingdom of Poland,—that is, complete separateness of the political constitution, of legislation, of the system of administration, of the judiciary, of public education and finances,—based on its recognition as a country absolutely Polish. The action inaugurated by the National Democrats harmonized in such a measure with the healthy instincts of the Polish community that even those patriotic elements which stand most removed from the National Democratic party appreciated its importance and took part in it. In November, the National Democratic party issued, in the Cracow *Polak* (the Pole,—its monthly organ for the peasants), an address calling upon all the communes in the kingdom of Poland to remove the Russian language from communal administration by means of formal resolutions at their quarterly assemblies. The authorities used all endeavors to prevent such action being taken by the communal assemblies; but the peasants eagerly and earnestly heeded the signal of the National Democratic party, and, according to the latest reports, resolutions demanding administration in the Polish language have been adopted by over three hundred communes, which represents a population of almost two millions. Greater attention is given by the government to the movement among the peasants demanding the Polish language in communal administration than to the labor riots, or even to the school strike, in Poland.

For this movement confirms the fact, long known, that the government's denationalizing policy with respect to the Polish peasant has failed; and this failure is perceived with irritation by the bureaucratic spheres. Years ago, after the crushing of the Polish revolution, in 1864, Milutin and his comrades in the ministry were uncertain as to the side on which the Polish peasant would stand; to-day, the government sees clearly that the Polish peasant stands in a body of seven million for Polonism. This is probably the profoundest revolution in the history of Poland.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

The Methods of the Trusts.—Expositions of the trust iniquities and the secrets of corporate profits are still favorite topics in the popular magazines. In *Everybody's* for June, in addition to what the editor describes as the pivotal installment of Mr. Thomas W. Lawson's "Frenzied Finance," Mr. Charles E. Russell analyzes the Garfield report on the beef industry with a view to showing that since the report deals with only one phase of the trust organizations and a small part of the trust operations, most of its conclusions are valueless.—Mr. John R. Dunlap sets forth quite briefly, in *Success*, the transportation secrets of the Standard Oil Company, which at the present time are all related to a development of the great system of pipe lines, forty thousand miles in length, by which the Standard has secured supremacy and is able to dictate terms to producers all over the country.—In the *World's Work*, Mr. Sereno S. Pratt suggests certain needed reforms in the management of our American insurance companies. He shows that a greater proportion of the income of foreign insurance companies is returned to policy-holders than of American companies. The first step in reform that he advocates is mutualization. It is urged, further, that the directors should be men actively interested in insurance, and not selected merely for advertising purposes; that there should be an end to the scramble for new business, and a limitation in size; and that there should be a reduction in commissions and other expensive methods of exploitation.

American History.—Prof. George P. Fisher's account of "A Visit to Washington on the Eve of the Civil War," which appears in the June *Scribner's*, is full of allusions to men and measures now half forgotten on account of the rush of events that followed immediately upon the firing on Fort Sumter. One of Professor Fisher's acquaintances at that time was the well-known Samuel Sullivan Cox, better known in later times as "Sunset Cox," who was then a Representative from Ohio, but for some years before his death a Representative from New York City. Cox rehearsed with Professor Fisher a speech that he had composed to be delivered in the House, and when his auditor frankly confessed his impression that each of the rival parties would consider the speech as being on its side, Cox remarked that that was just what he wanted. Professor Fisher met President Buchanan, General Cass, Mr. Charles Francis Adams, Senator Trumbull, of Illinois, Senator Sumner, Senator Seward, and other leading personalities of the day.—The *Century* for June prints some recollections of Gen. Jubal Early, the Confederate commander, written by one of his followers. It was Early who in the summer of 1864 "marched his ragged regiments within sight of the White House and camped all night within cannon-shot of the city of Washington." In those days Early gave the Federal generals in and about Washington many a bad quarter of an hour;

but, as this writer concludes, "he was not a Jackson or a Lee, nor was he, in my judgment, the equal of John B. Gordon, who succeeded him. To his followers, he will always be 'Old Jube.'"—This number of the *Century* seems to have been put together with conscious reference to the associations clustering about Memorial Day, for there are articles on "Boys in the Union Army," by George L. Kilmer; "What a Boy Saw of the Civil War," by Leighton Parks; and "A Pupil's Recollections of Stonewall Jackson," by Thomas M. Semmes.—A pleasing chapter in President Roosevelt's career heretofore but sparingly treated by his biographers is contained in an article contributed by S. Addison Wolf to the June number of *Pearson's*. The article is entitled "Roosevelt's First Lesson in Statecraft," and gives an account of the young ranchman's experiences in organizing government on the frontier in the early eighties. The county of Billings was brought into existence in 1885 chiefly through the efforts of young Roosevelt, who was the leader in all attempts to establish law and order in that frontier community.—"Some old Scouts and Their Deeds" is the title of a contribution to the June *Outing*, by David Lansing. This article is illustrated by rare old photographs of such well-known frontier characters as "Ned Buntline," "Buffalo Bill," "Texas Jack," Seth Kinman, Capt. Jack Hayes, Kit Carson, Sam Houston, and a number of Indian chiefs and scouts.—In *Munsey's Magazine* the story of the oldest ship in the United States navy is related by George R. Miller. This, contrary to the prevalent belief, is not the *Constitution*, but her sister ship, the *Constellation*, which was launched just forty-four days before the *Constitution*. Dating from 1797, both ships now outrank in age almost every other naval vessel now afloat under any flag, the most conspicuous exception being the *Victory*, which was Nelson's flagship at Trafalgar one hundred years ago. The *Constellation* is still in service as a receiving ship at Newport. She fought in one or two famous sea-fights under Commodore Truxton more than a hundred years ago.

College Athletics.—The influence of commercialism in college sports is discussed in *McClure's* for June by Henry Beach Needham. The practice of subsidizing college athletes, which is known to prevail in some of the larger Eastern institutions, is described in detail, names and other identifying facts being stated in several instances.—Ralph D. Paine, writing in the June *Outing*, also condemns those college athletes "who make a business of sport and chase the dollar with as much ardor as the pigskin," but he contends that there is another side to the case. The practice of teaching physical culture as a livelihood, or combining the duties of school or college instructor with those of directing gymnasium and field work, is entirely commendable in itself, but the man who does this successfully, as Mr.

Paine points out, is "in a different class from the graduate who makes a profession of coaching football teams three months in the year and who makes a failure of everything else he undertakes during the other nine months."

Is Typhoid a Necessary Evil?—Many facts are marshaled by Samuel Hopkins Adams in the June *McClure's* to show that certain American cities which have had their epidemics of typhoid fever in recent years might have been saved such costly experiences if ordinary sanitary precautions had been taken. Some of these cities have repented and taken tardy steps to lock the stable after the horse has escaped, but the darker side of the picture reveals other cities still reveling in their sins against sanitation and threatened with visitations as severe as any that history records.—The aim of modern medicine to abolish all infectious diseases is clearly set forth in an article contributed to *Leslie's* for June by Dr. A. C. Seely.

Notes of Travel.—Apropos of the approaching completion of the steel railroad bridge across the gorge below Victoria Falls, a brief description of the cataract is contributed to the June *Century* by Mr. Theodore F. Van Wagenen. This writer protests that there is no possibility of comparison between Victoria Falls and Niagara. Niagara he characterizes as a perfect picture in a lovely natural framework, while Victoria is "simply a phenomenon, a terrific gash in the floor of an apparently unending plain, which as one gazes simply swallows a river in a manner that produces almost a thrill of horror." It is likely that the Victoria Falls will be carefully studied by the geological section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, which will hold its meeting next year in South Africa. The floor of the new bridge will be more than four hundred feet above the water of the Zambesi River.—"Across the Highlands of the World" is the title given to Mr. Charles Johnson Post's graphic account of his recent journey through the interior of South America from La Paz, over the Andes and across the continent, out into the Atlantic by way of the Amazon, which appears in the June number of *Harper's*. Comparatively

little has been written of these South American tablelands, and, hard as it may appear, it is probably true that readers in the United States are more familiar with the Himalayas than with the Andes, so far as knowledge may be gained through literary channels. Most of the country described by Mr. Post is a veritable desert.—In the *Metropolitan Magazine*, Dr. Sheldon Jackson, who has been for twenty-eight years the United States agent for education in Alaska, and who always writes authoritatively on Alaskan topics, contributes a well-written account of "Our Barbarous Eskimos in Northern Alaska." Dr. Jackson declares that the Eskimos of Alaska are a much finer race physically than their kindred of Greenland and Labrador. They are not all of low stature, as is commonly believed. Dr. Jackson says that from Cape Prince of Wales to Icy Cape, along the Arctic coast and on the great inland rivers emptying into the Arctic Ocean, many of the Eskimos are six feet and over in height. They are lighter in color and fairer than the North American Indian, have black and brown eyes, black hair (some with a tinge of brown), high cheek-bones, fleshy faces, small hands and feet, and good teeth.—The island of Crete, which is just now very much in the public eye because of the movement for annexation to Greece, is the subject of an entertaining article in *Scribner's* for June by Blanche Emily Wheeler. For many years the island was almost an unknown land to travelers, but since 1897, when autonomy was granted to the people of Crete under the suzerainty of the Porte and Prince George of Greece was appointed high commissioner, foreigners have been invited to visit the island, and have done so with perfect safety. Archaeologists were the first strangers to take advantage of the open door, and the explorations conducted by Italian, English, French, and American excavators have already yielded valuable returns.—In the same magazine, Dr. Henry van Dyke offers suggestions of what may be found by the traveler among the Quantock Hills, and recalls some of the literary associations of the region.—In the June number of *Outing*, Mr. Clifton Johnson contributes a description of the headwaters of the Mississippi River, illustrated by his own photographs.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

The International Chamber of Agriculture.—The International Congress of Agriculture, meeting in Rome, as this number of the REVIEW of REVIEWS is issued, to discuss the formation of an International Chamber of Agriculture, has aroused much more interest in Italy than in this country. Since the articles we mentioned in the May number, several others have appeared in Italian reviews. In the *Giornale degli Economisti*, Prof. Maffeo Pantaleoni, one of the warmest supporters of the idea, defended the project against various attacks. Signor Antonio Agresti, whom we quoted last month, issued a small book, with a preface by Mr. David Lubin, the originator, entitled "The Green International; or, The International Institute of Agriculture," giving a conversation on an Atlantic liner, with an American, an Englishman, a Frenchman, a German, a Spaniard, and an Italian as speakers, and discussing, pro and con, the whole project. Signor Antonio Monzilli, from whose opposing article we quoted last month,

takes this book and the above-mentioned article as text for a twenty-page attack on the scheme in the *Italia Moderna*. He regards international measures as entirely useless for Italian needs, and inferentially for those of other countries. Credit is already world-wide, capital flowing where it is needed, and an international organization would meet the same obstacles that the many local agrarian credit associations do,—that is, length of loan terms, insufficient security, and the low rate of interest possible. As to information of prices and markets, he considers present machinery efficient and sufficient. Museums and exhibits are in abundance rather than deficiency, and makers of improved machinery have their own methods for stimulating its introduction. In the fight against plant and animal diseases, there is lack of community of interest, and countries of diverse interest would be slow to accept uniform laws, or to assume financial burdens resulting from destruction of crops or animals of another country for

the common good. The writer doubts if parliaments would receive with submission the suggestions of the two houses of the chamber, and thinks it would be vexatious to have agents of the chamber executing regulations in the various countries in opposition to or competition with governmental agents. International agrarian insurance he thinks as Utopian as the other propositions. He prophesies that the congress, in the main sensible, will simply establish the bureau for information and statistics, possibly also for investigations; that this bureau will issue a few reports, to be leafed over by half-a-dozen experts in each country, and that then the chamber will vegetate to the profit only of the holders of the sinecure positions created by it.

The Significance of the Kaiser's Visit to Morocco.—The Kaiser's visit in Morocco is editorially commented upon by the weekly *Die Hilfe* (Berlin), a widely circulated periodical with strong liberal tendencies. "When William II., in 1898, held his solemn entrance in Damascus, he said that 'the German Emperor was the friend of all Mohammedans,' and in the eyes of the faithful he is really the 'friend of the Khalifa.' Even when the Arabs are under French ascendancy, as in Tunis and Algiers, they honor the German Kaiser as a secret ally. When the Mussulman uses the words 'our Khalifa,' he always means the head at Constantinople. The 'Sick Man' is still a moral power from Oran to Bagdad. And the brother of the 'Sick Man,' the 'Prussian Sultan,' has now been honored by the ruler of Morocco. The idea of the Mohammedan world concerning an alliance between the Germans and the followers of the Prophet has been strengthened. The question is now whether Germany can help the Sultan of Morocco or whether the imperial visit to Tangier will range alongside of the telegram to President Krüger. Both proceedings possess real resemblance. In both cases, independence of European power is the question, an independence favored by Germany without being able to guarantee any help to the 'friend' in case of actual danger. Nevertheless, if Germany cannot extend a full guarantee to succor the Moroccans against France, it is probable that the development of the present Asiatic crisis sooner or later will necessitate a union of the Mohammedans. The struggle about Arabia is evidently approaching in the same measure as England obtains the ascendancy in Tibet, Afghanistan, Persia, and Egypt. The historical point of the resurrection of the whole Mohammedan body is approaching, and the Emperor has counted upon this emergency for many years. Therefore, Germany could not support Armenia because she has become the partisan of the Turk, painful as it may be. It may be even so in Morocco. The Sultan is strengthened in his adversity against the French, and at the same time in his adversity against reform. Reform in this sense is passing from Mohammedanism to capitalism, from the state of the Middle Age to civilization. Germany desires reform as a commercial people, but as a political power it must strengthen the Sultan. She confesses solemnly and frankly that she will not rule the Sultan,—that is to say, she will not capitalistically civilize him; she will only keep him free. Under such circumstances, it is comprehensible when it is reported that the Sultan, when notified about the visit of the Kaiser, demonstrated barbaric joy. No wonder, then, that everybody in Morocco, from the highest official to the highway

robbers of the stamp of Raissuli, appeared to salute the German Emperor. He embodies for them, indeed, the remaining in the old state of affairs, the keeping of customs, religion, and old culture. We say this not in order to write against the Emperor's visit, but in order to fully demonstrate its consequences."

Reminiscences of Jules Verne.—An appreciative character sketch of the late Jules Verne is contributed to the *Annales* (Paris) by Adolph Brisson. To this French statesman Verne often said: "You need not praise me. My work is the source of my only happiness. When I finish one of my books I am ill at ease and not happy again until I have broken ground for another. For me to be idle is to suffer." Verne was very regular in his habits of work. He arose early, and very soon began his work. In reading the newspapers and reviews, he followed an order to which he always strictly adhered. He began with the *Temps* always, then he took up the *Figaro*, and then the *Gaulois*. Always in this order. On the days when the municipal council of Amiens assembled he was deprived of his reading, for he always fulfilled his duties as city father with admirable conscientiousness. M. Brisson tells about one special visit to Amiens. He was surprised, he says, to find that Verne had traveled but little, and that his information about places and peoples was mainly gathered from books. He confessed to me, says M. Brisson, "that he had a small yacht, and that he had sailed in it a little in the English Channel and on the Mediterranean." "And have you never been any farther than that?" "Never," he said. "Have you never seen any cannibals?" "Never." "Nor any Mongolians?" "Never." "You have not even made a tour of the world in eighty days?" "I have never even made a tour of the world." The author had nothing but a planisphere hung in his study, and this he had covered with confused marks, "just to amuse myself by tracing the roads followed by my heroes." Ranged on the shelves of his library, M. Brisson tells us, were translations of all his works, and all languages were represented there. There was "The Mysterious Island" in Japanese, and "The Voyage to the Moon" in Arabic. Verne started out with the intention of becoming a sort of Balzac of the drama. He meant to shake modern society to its foundations by the audacity and cruel truth of his descriptions. His publisher, M. Hetzel, Sr., however, hearing of this ambition, read the young author a lecture. "My child, stop to believe what I tell you. I know what I say by experience. Do not squander your strength. You are founding,—or, at least, if not founding, renewing,—a style of literature which has hitherto appeared exhausted. Work this thoroughly. You will draw from it a golden harvest as well as a harvest of glory. This is what you must do,—from this day onward you must give me two romances per year. We will sign the contract to-morrow." Jules Verne signed the contract, and he did not fail to perform what he had agreed to. His production was as regular as that of the apple trees of his native land, but it was more abundant, and it furnished two harvests a year,—one in spring and one in autumn; and, moreover, no accident ever suspended the regularity of its advent. For forty years Jules Verne was known as an indulgent and amiable savant, who made a pastime of scientific fancy and taught children to think by telling them stories. But he was something more and better,—he was a great romance-writing idealist.

Spain's National Defense Programme.—In *España Moderna* (Madrid) there is an article on "The Political Bases of National Defense in Spain," the author of which says: "In order to progress,—to live, in fact,—a nation must necessarily have ideals; but why should these ideals be confined to external affairs, to foreign expansion? Are not the ideals of improvement at home sufficiently great and noble? Should not a Spaniard be satisfied with ideals the realization of which would rouse us from our present lethargy and fit us, at a future time, for the quest of ideals which are now dreams and illusions? Is it not suicidal to aspire to other things before assuring our existence as a nation? Let us bring home to the national conscience the fact that the present state of things does not guarantee the political independence of Spain, nor its economic independence, nor its very existence, in fact. When this lesson has been taken to heart,—when we have become strong at home,—then we may cherish broader ideals which are to-day fallacious and dangerous. Before deciding on the best means of national defense, one point must be decided,—shall we strengthen our army or our navy? I advise the former course. As every Spaniard knows, to reorganize our army on an efficient basis would be to create it anew; if this be true of the army, it is doubly so of the navy. We are poor. If we applied our limited resources to the improvement of the navy, we should not only be unable to bring the latter to a state of efficiency, but should be leaving our army just as it is to-day. In this manner, we should have a navy and an army equally inefficient. On the other hand, although the creation of an army is a laborious task, a period of ten or twelve years might suffice to materially improve our military arm."

Questions for the Next Hague Conference.—In a paper read by Prof. T. E. Holland before the British Academy on neutral duties in a maritime war (and published in the *Fortnightly Review*) we are reminded of one of the wishes recorded in the last hours of the Hague Peace Conference. "The conference desires that the question of the rights and the duties of neutrals may be entered on the programme of a conference to be called at an early date." On the programme of that conference Professor Holland would inscribe the following questions: 1. Are subsidized liners within the prohibition of the sale to a belligerent by a neutral government of ships of war? 2. Is a neutral government bound to interfere with the use of its territory for the maintenance of belligerent communications by wireless telegraphy? 3. To prevent the exit of even partially equipped warships? 4. To prevent, with more care than has hitherto been customary, the exportation of supplies, especially of coal, to belligerent fleets at sea? 5. By what specific precautions must a neutral prevent abuse of the "asylum" afforded by its ports to belligerent ships of war?—with especial reference to the bringing in of prizes, duration of stay, consequences of over-prolonged stay, the simultaneous presence of vessels of mutually hostile nationalities, repairs and provisioning during stay, and, in particular, renewal of stocks of coal. How is this duty to be construed with reference to: 6. Interruption of safe navigation over territorial waters and the high seas, respectively? 7. The distance from the scene of operations at which the right of visit may be properly exercised? 8. The protection from the exercise of this right afforded by the presence of neutral convoy? 9. The time and place

at which so-called "volunteer" fleets and subsidized liners may exchange the mercantile for a naval character? 10. Immunity for mail ships, or their mail bags? 11. The requirement of actual warning to blockade-runners, and the application to blockade of the doctrine of "continuous voyages?" 12. The distinction between "absolute" and "conditional" contraband, with especial reference to food and coal? 13. The doctrine of "continuous voyages" with reference to contraband? 14. The cases, if any, in which a neutral prize may lawfully be sunk at sea, instead of being brought in for adjudication? 15. The due constitution of prize courts? 16. The legitimacy of a rule condemning the ship herself when more than a certain proportion of her cargo is of a contraband character?

Drunkenness and Alcoholism.—In a scientific study (in the *Economic Review*, of London), Dr. W. C. Sullivan calls attention to the fact that excessive drunkenness is comparatively innocent compared with alcoholism. Convivial drunkenness prevails most among miners, who are comparatively free from alcoholism, and alcohol engenders diseases. It is the constant habit of nip, nip, nipping that poisons the drinker. Heavy drinking after work is done, however regrettable as a proof of a low standard of manners, is not of very great account in the causation of the worst evils of intemperance.

A German Tribute to American Literature.—An article by Ludwig Salomon in a recent issue of the *Illustrierte Zeitung* (Leipsic) contains a graceful and pleasing tribute to American literature in general, and to one eminent writer, the late Lew Wallace, in particular. It begins: "One of our well-known writers has said: 'Nowadays a good English book is, in the majority of cases, an American book,' and in truth the productions sent over to us from America are far superior to the many superficial and carelessly written books which England is turning out. The better class of American books are carefully thought out, the English is absolutely correct, there is an earnest effort throughout to produce the most perfect result possible, and, above all, each work bears the mark of a certain fundamental ideality. Every American author worthy of the name evidently feels it his duty to point out life's higher significance to his countrymen, who are working so feverishly to secure the good things of life, and to offer noble spiritual enjoyment for their leisure hours. Bryant and Longfellow were animated by this passion, and the whole striving of the late Lew Wallace was for this worthy end,—a novelist whose masterpiece, 'Ben Hur,' was for many years the most popular book in America, and the translation of which has had a remarkable vogue in Germany."

German Attitude Toward Trusts.—A short editorial in the *Deutsche Rundschau* (Berlin) speaks as follows on the subject of trusts and on President Roosevelt's attitude toward them: "President Roosevelt has delivered a speech directed against the trusts, even against the powerful railroad system. To be sure, the celebrated interstate commerce bill,—famous for having accomplished so little,—was aimed at the encroachments of the great railroad men; but in the final decision of all such cases in that country the offenders against the law deemed worthy of punishment have not been the rich and powerful framers of the laws. At

any rate, it is a significant fact that Mr. Roosevelt feels himself competent to deal with the millionaires and multimillionaires who for so long a time have understood how to represent their interests as those of the industry and trade of the middle classes. Well-managed syndicates play into the hands of the great trusts as a matter of course, but in the trusts all industrial and commercial independence is absorbed, and we who have already heard of the American trust system as something particularly commendable have double cause to observe and profit by these developments in America."

With the Russian Troops En Route to Manchuria.—A writer in the *Revue Bleue*, who discusses the military activity of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, describes the provisioning and equipment of the troops dispatched to the far East as, in general, quite adequate. As to the general appearance of the troops whom he saw on several occasions, he declares that what impressed the observer was their calm tranquility. They are phlegmatic, care-free, and resigned. Even the married men, he says, show no signs of care or worry. When a train makes a stop they group themselves about the ends of the cars and sing popular songs, some of them dancing for the entertainment of the others. They talk continually about the war, but their conversation is generally a wish that the Japanese had not begun the war, or at least that they had waited until Port Arthur might have been made absolutely impregnable. The Russians, says this writer, in conclusion, have proven that they know how to build a transcontinental railroad and to transport and maintain thousands of troops thousands of miles from home, but they have also shown that they positively do not know how to get ready in time for the emergency.

To Lessen the Publication of Criminal News.—In the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence), F. Romorino calls attention to a movement inaugurated by Professor Cian, of Pisa, in the *Giornale d'Italia*, against what in America is called "yellow journalism,"—that is, the printing of details of crimes and writing about criminals in such a way as to create sympathy or admiration for them rather than condemnation, and to suggest, if not the repetition of such crimes, at least a tolerance that defeats justice and injures moral standards. Petitions headed with a declaration that the signers wish some check put upon the chronicling of crime are sent out in Italian magazines and circulated in other ways.

The Growth of International Arbitration.—Sir John Macdonell, writing, in the *Nineteenth Century* for April, on the international arbitrations of the century, says: "Looking back on the arbitrations of last century, they are seen not to be detached incidents in its history. We witness the formation of a new institution, a new organ for harmonious relations between states, with functions of its own; an evolution not unlike that which created ages ago in most countries tribunals for the settlement of domestic disputes. The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries gave the world permanent embassies, permanent means of conducting intercourse between nations. The eighteenth century at its close gave the rudiments of a rational law of

neutrality. The nineteenth gave international arbitrations, which, in the words of William Penn, tend not a little 'to the rooting up of wars and planting peace in a deep and fruitful soil.'"

The Pan-Celtic Movement.—Considerable impetus has been given during recent years to the pan-Celtic movement. In Ireland, Wales, Scotland, and Brittany, the racial consciousness has manifested itself with increasing force. A French writer, J. G. Prud'homme, writing in the *Revue Bleue*, declares that today pan-Celtism represents a population of 3,600,000. Of these, 2,200,000 are in Great Britain, and 1,400,000 in Brittany. M. Prud'homme sees in the Welsh eisteddfod, or national gatherings for musical and oratorical contests, the most rational and desirable manifestation of this pan-Celtic movement. Neither France nor Great Britain, he declares, can find fault with such evidences of racial pride and desire for the cultivation of venerable artistic tongues.

Alcohol and Hypnotism.—The editor of *La Revue's* scientific section, Dr. L. Caze, has a paragraph on "Alcoholism and Hypnotism." The disease of drunkenness, he declares, is now being treated by hypnotism in Russia. The well-known French doctor, Legrain, has made this practice the subject of an interesting communication to the French Society of Hypnology and Psychology. The Russian Government, he declares, has established dispensaries in a number of the cities, among them St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Saratof, and Astrakhan, in which so-called incurable drunkards by the hundred are treated by this hypnotic method. Liquor is kept from them during the cure, and they are informed that they do not want to drink any more. They are followed for some time by the care of the doctors, and the treatment is said to have already had very happy results.

The Real Founders of the British Navy.—A writer on "The Tudors and the Navy" (in the *Quarterly Review*) brings to light the startling fact that the English navy owes more to Henry VII. and Henry VIII. than to Elizabeth. Henry VII. dared to be insular, and in renouncing the traditional claim on French territory committed the country to a maritime career and gave a naval bias to our history. The navy board was established in 1546. Henry VIII. fashioned the navy with which Elizabeth fought Spain, and opened a new era in naval tactics by arming his ships with heavy guns. The warship, instead of a platform for land battles fought at sea, became a mobile gun-carriage.

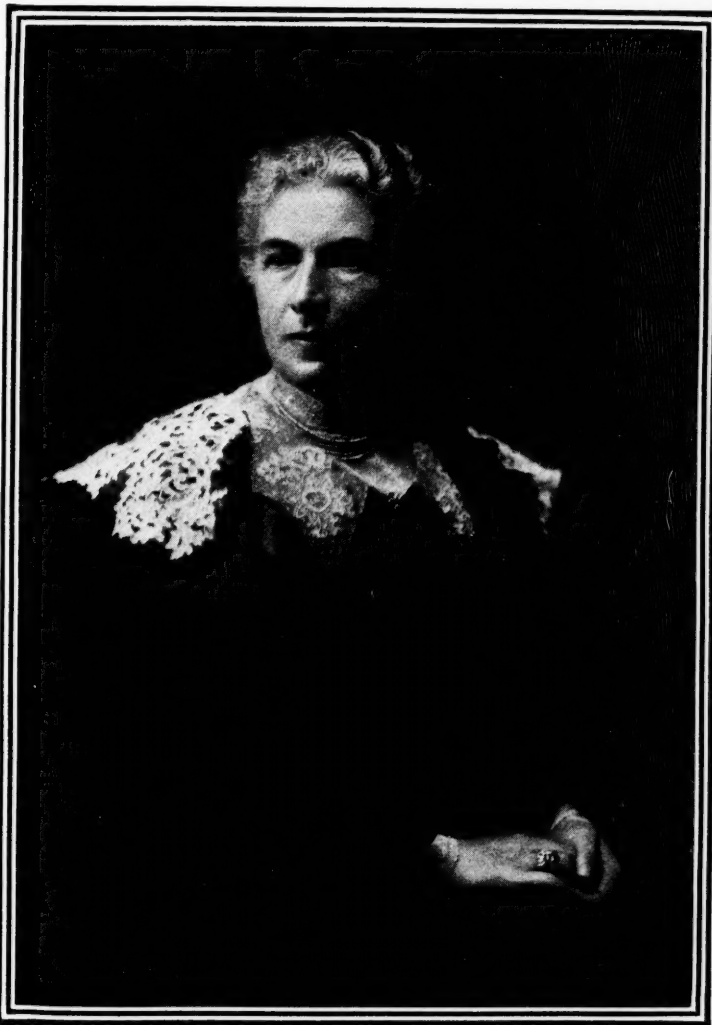
The Early Life of the Present Pope.—In the latest installment of the life of Pope Pius X. which is now appearing in the *Revue de Paris* we are informed that the Pontiff's early life seems to have been altogether full of hardships, which have left an impression on his features and his mode of life; and he has had the good taste to preserve the simplicity of his youth amid all the pontifical ceremonial which his present position of dignity imposes. Having been severe to himself, he does not hesitate to be exacting toward others in the service of the Church; he does not permit resistance or temporizing.

NOTABLE FICTION OF SPRING AND SUMMER.

IT is difficult, if not impossible, to discern with any clearness of outline the dominant movements—if movements there be—in contemporary fiction. Yet the literary historian of the future will necessarily, in self-defense, be forced to classify in some way the enormous mass of books which at a glance seems quite heterogeneous. We need not, however, let the difficulties of that hypothetical gentleman oppress us. The Elizabethan knew nothing of the "Tragedy of Blood," or of the "Romantic Comedy;" we know nothing of the "American Problem Novel," "The Stevensonian Romance," the "Novel of the Wild;" or, at least, we are only vaguely conscious of such classes or groups. The literary historian of the twenty-first century will see these movements quite clearly, as well as others that do not even suggest themselves to us. The satiric imagination, indeed, may even delight itself with the vision of future post-graduate students writing doctoral dissertations on "American Novels of the Anthony-Hope Type from 1890-1910," or, with the supersubtle specialization to which the academic mind tends, on "Kiplingesque Short Stories by Natives of Indiana in the First Quarter of the Twentieth Century."

But if we could view the fiction of our own time objectively enough, if we could assume toward it the juster and sterner attitude of future critics, how much more fruitful and how much less painful a task would the criticism of books become. At present we pick up a volume—one here, one there—and produce the desired quantity of "copy." In literature alone could such a nerveless method of procedure be tolerated. But suppose the reviewer said to himself: "I have here a novel belonging to the American problem-novel type; variety, 'Negro-Problem.' Hence, the main theme of the book is specific, temporary, geographical. Does it contain enough of the eternal, of vital, human things, their tears or laughter, to outweigh its more immediate and merely ephemeral appeal? No; then it need not be noticed." Vain dream! Review one book in a hundred? And how, if you please, is the reviewer to live, and shall the

seventh-rate novelist be forsaken and his children beg bread? No doubt. Let us encourage the production of fiction as heretofore. Let it increase in more than geometrical ratio, as it has done within the last half-century. Let us read and review until our mental fiber



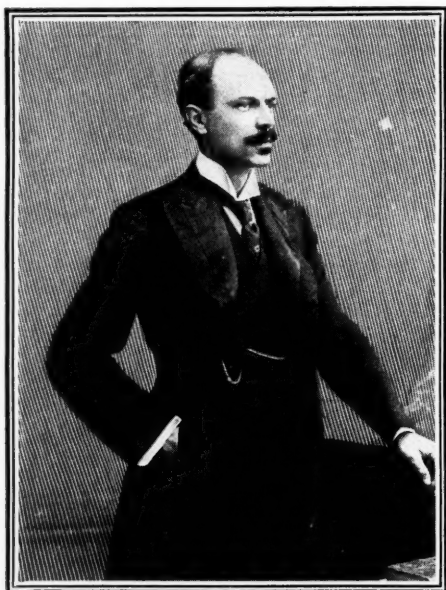
MRS. HUMPHRY WARD.

(Mrs. Ward's latest novel, "The Marriage of William Ashe," is noticed on the following page.)

is completely relaxed and our very power of critical rectitude is lost. Then shall we read and review without twinges of conscience and be contented *in sæcula sæculorum*!

REPRESENTATIVE BRITISH FICTION.

Mrs. Humphry Ward possesses not only sincerity and strength, not only narrative and dramatic power,—all qualities far commoner than they are thought to be,—but she puts into her books that “fundamental brain-work” which at once and unmistakably raises a new novel from her hand above the glaring emptiness of the horde of contemporary and temporary novelists. It cannot be said of Mrs. Ward that she “sees life steadily



MAURICE HEWLETT.

and sees it whole;” nor even, perhaps, that she sees it as steadily as she did when, long ago, she wrote “The History of David Grieve,” and dealt with problems and passions more elemental than she has done of late. Nevertheless, the story of William Ashe and of his fatal marriage to Lady Kitty Bristol is one of the few stories of which a measure, at least, of endurance may be predicted. Like all of Mrs. Ward’s books, “The Marriage of William Ashe” (Harpers) is rich in a multitude of living characters. But neither these nor (as has been erroneously supposed) the problem of William’s attitude toward his wife lend the book its vital significance. That resides chiefly, if not alone, in the character of Lady Kitty Bristol. She was a child of genius predestined to genius and waywardness and to immortal childhood. She was untrue to her husband not through passion, nor was she unkind through any hardness of heart. She was one of those rare beings,—infinitely adorable and pitiable at once,—whose souls do not feel, until too late, the inexorableness of things. But to her, too, came at last the deeper vision. “Oh, what pain there is in the world, William! What *pain!* That’s what I never knew.” And then she died, for her nature was not made to realize pain or to feel it. As for William, he did his best, and, doing it, he, like so many men, “killed the thing he loved.”

To Mr. Maurice Hewlett, as to Théophile Gautier, “the visible world exists.” The sight of beauty is, in

his eyes, its savor upon his tongue. In the deliberate flow of his golden sentences, he tells us not only of dawn and sunset, spring or summer, but of jewels and gorgeous raiment, and of all the pageantry of forgotten years. To do this he chooses the Middle Ages as his province. He chooses them, too, because he can find there the play of sheer passion,—of hunger, hate, and love. Love is the burden of Mr. Hewlett’s stories,—not love as depicted by the modern lady novelist, but the great primitive desire that clutches a man’s throat and races in the current of his blood; sensual, if you will, but transfigured and transformed through the power of beauty. Four “Fond Adventures” are related in Mr. Hewlett’s new volume (Harpers),—one of old Provence, one of the Canterbury Pilgrims, and two of Italy “before the days of Dante and his friend Giotto.” The first and third adventures are the more remarkable. In the first, we learn how the proud Provençal, Lady Saill, was, by her own cruelty and the fortune of war, brought low. Her white feet bled in the snow; she knew cold and hunger, and learned, incidentally, that the poor minstrel loved her better than the great lords who sang so marvelously of their love. And thus to Guillem was given “the heart’s key.” More pitiful for its sad ending is “Buondelmonte’s Saga,” for Buondelmonte and Piccarda, the spotless, burned toward each other instinctively



EDEN PHILLPOTTS.

and inevitably, and the lover was swiftly slain in the broil of Florentine factions. But it really matters little what subject Mr. Hewlett chooses. His style, his vision, his passion,—these are always there.

And yet one should not care, perhaps, to linger too long amid the heated passions and brilliant pageants of Mr. Hewlett’s world, but turns gladly to “The Secret

Woman" (Macmillan), the latest, and assuredly the best, novel of Mr. Eden Phillpotts. Here we are far from any ardors of the South. A stern sky bends over the Devon country, the swift winds blow over the solemn hills, and Nature has lent something of her own austerity to the soul of man. This is no home of facile sinning. Righteousness and repentance, strength and self control, are native here. The sin of Anthony Redvers was



THE BARONESS VON HUTTEN.

merely one of sense. For to him that silent woman who was his wife was, for all her coldness, before and above all other women. But Ann, though she faltered a moment, could not at last forgive. Yet she did not mean to slay her husband. From that event on, however, the tragedy moves on unbrokenly and impressively. Ann Redvers and Salome Westaway, with whom Anthony had sinned, and Ann's sons,—all are in the grip of fate. It is a Greek tragedy upon the Devon hills, beautiful and austere. One reconciling touch comes at the end. For the silent woman has glimpses of a mercy that is beyond justice, and forgives, even as she would be forgiven. "The Silent Woman" is not unfittingly inscribed to Mr. Swinburne.

These three books,—the most noteworthy of the season's output of British fiction,—belong distinctly to the realm of literature proper rather than to that of journalistic story-telling. In regard to the majority of books, such an assertion would be hazardous, though one should like to make it of "Pam," by the Baroness Bettina von Hutten (Dodd, Mead). The trouble with Pam is that, with all her bewildering charm, both as child and as woman, one cannot avoid suspecting her of being a brilliant impossibility. Doubtless she had a right to be strange, seeing that her parents were not married and were yet brave and strong enough to be absurdly happy together, and thus added another demoraliz-

ing example to the flourishing of the wicked. The illegality of her parents' relations to each other was never concealed from Pam. Thus, her remarkable character and intellect gained something strange, exotic, exquisite. And yet, though Pauline Yeoland and Guy Sacheverell were truly happy, though Pam,—fruit of that irregular union,—grew up, for all her petulance, to be strong and wise and good, though the Baroness von Hutten disclaims all moralizing aims, there is but one conclusion to be drawn from this story. Marriage may be an evil necessity, but a necessity it is. Ravaglia, the Italian actress,—whose tragic, gracious figure is drawn in some of the best pages of the book,—felt this. Even Pam came to feel it at last. It is vain to battle against the accumulated instinct of innumerable generations, and when even the man whom she loved insulted her, Pam said: "I know that people must marry, so that their daughters can bear their fathers' name, and not be hurt like this." One hopes that somehow, somewhere, Pam found the happiness she deserved.

With "Lady Penelope," by Morley Roberts (L. C. Page), witty and ingenious as the book is, we descend to the plane of the more or less frankly ephemeral. Lady Penelope, afflicted with great wealth, a plentiful

lack of humor, and Earnestness (with a capital E), sets out upon new paths to matrimony. Her plan is, first, to reform and chasten "the horde" of her suitors, and then to marry one of its members secretly. It is all very amusing. The characters of the gentlemen in Penelope's train are vividly outlined and differentiated. The boy, Bob, is capital fun, and so is the duchess. But only the verbal wit has delicacy; the rest is caricature. Rufus Q. Plant, for



LADY PENELOPE BRADING.

(Frontispiece reduced.)

example, comes perilously near the obvious comic-paper American. But "Lady Penelope" will fill the proverbial idle hour with very genuine amusement.

Mr. E. Phillips Oppenheim is not content to do things by halves. The ramifications of his mystery are staggering. "The Mysterious Mr. Sabin" (Little, Brown) appears upon the stage with a limp, a white Henri Quatre, an air of ruthlessness and cold cruelty. One suspects a twentieth-century Mephistopheles. But Mr. Sabin turns out to be only a fanatical adherent of the House of Bourbon who by a mad and impossible series of international complications would force Germany to invade France and restore the dynasty of her ancient kings. It is all glaringly impossible, yet not without power or real fascination. Mr. Oppenheim has no difficulty in holding or convincing his reader,—if only for an hour.

"An Act in a Backwater," by E. F. Benson (Appletons), is a novel which starts out admirably and ends in sheer vacuity. A keen, satiric vision went to the crea-

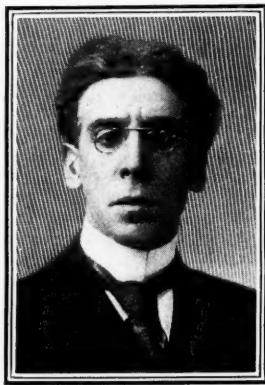
tion of that swaggering liar, Colonel Raymond, his weary wife, and equally weary children. The logical outcome of Raymond's career should have been a grim exposure at the hands of his "noble relatives." Instead, Mr. Benson drops the thread of his powerful narrative satire and gives us a love-story like a hundred others,—old village maidens and pathetic death. But Colonel Raymond deserves to be remembered.

It would be difficult to find a volume more refreshing than "Mr. Pennycock's Boy," by J. J. Bell (Harpers). Here are neither impossible romance nor pseudo-subtlety, but simple happenings in very simple lives, related with such humor, such charm, such human kindliness, as to rank Mr. Bell with the other living masters of Scotch fiction,—with Barrie and Crockett. The stories in "Mr. Pennycock's Boy" are all quite brief. Many of them deal with the children of the Glasgow streets; in all of them, children occur. Mr. Bell, like Stevenson, has remembered his own childhood. He still feels the poignancy of its small griefs, the keenness of its joys, and the children whom he creates through memory and imagination will recall to every reader his own childhood.

The heroine of "The Vicissitudes of Evangeline," by Mrs. Elinor Glyn (Harpers), has red hair, green eyes, black lashes, and closes her career as that of an "Adventuress." She ends up by making a more or less conventional marriage. Evangeline almost deserved a better fate, at least, as a heroine in fiction. The story is witty, fluent, and amusing.

BRITISH HUMOR.

Whether Mr. Zangwill is a great humorist remains to be seen. But he assuredly possesses one of the great humorist's qualifications,—inexhaustible fertility. There are not many books in any language that for sheer richness of humorous invention surpass "The Celibates' Club" (Macmillan). Of course, the bachelors in the bachelors' club, and the old maids in "The Old Maids' Club," are all, at last, crushed under the pitiless heel of matrimony. In thirty-two stories, Mr. Zangwill tells us how they succumbed, and though the stories vary in interest, the reader will probably not care to miss a single one. As in the work of all humorists who really count, there is here profound seriousness beneath much that seems lightest fooling. There is a tragedy, in fact, in "The Fall of Israfel." For Israfel Mondego had a genius for singing comic songs, and by life's irony was forced to ladle out sentimentality, which his soul abhorred, to widows and spinsters, who adored his songs, his eyes, and his mustache. Equally serious at bottom is "The Logic of Love," the story of a divine dream nursed shyly for years in the heart of a colorless man of science, and realized at last. It is needless to add that all the stories

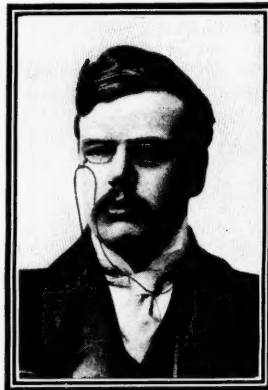


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ISRAEL ZANGWILL.

abound in wit and humor in detail, and that some of the verses are brilliant.

Mr. Gilbert K. Chesterton, the really brilliant English critic, comes for the second time to pay homage to the Golden Calf, a process which in the case of the modern



GILBERT K. CHESTERTON.

author means, obviously, that he has brought out his second volume of fiction. The humor of his first book, "The Napoleon of Nottingham Hill," was like the peace of God,—past all understanding. "The Club of Queer Trades" (Harpers), utter and unredeemed extravaganzas as it is, is more enjoyable. To give away Mr. Chesterton's central idea would be to give away all. The reader, if he is not too fastidious, can, however, be promised a series of pleasant shocks.

But the author of "Varied Types" writing "The Club of Queer Trades" is a singularly unedifying spectacle.

AMERICAN SOCIETY AND POLITICS.

All critical epithets have been so sorely overworked that at last one hesitates to use them. Yet there is no word but charm with which to describe the quality of "Tommy Carteret," by Justus Miles Forman (Doubleday, Page). The infinite charity that is the best fruit of deep experience breathes from these pages,—the charity that forgives everything because it understands everything. Thus, Mr. Forman has no bitter word for that hopeless superannuated philanderer, "old Tommy Carteret," whose burden of guilt "young Tommy" assumes, because "Carteret never failed Carteret." For, as young Tommy says to himself repeatedly, "A man is no stronger than he's made." Hartwell, the outraged husband, believing in young Tommy's guilt, decrees that he shall go into the wilderness. Thus, Tommy buys silence for his father's sake and Sybil's,—the dearest girl in the world,—and is suddenly driven from the open gates of his paradise into a hell for soul and body. The descriptions of Tommy's life in the wilderness, of how he conquered despair again and again, of his meeting with Mariana, a hill girl, and of her tragic love,—these are the best things that Mr. Forman has yet done in fiction, and they are thoroughly good. One fails to see quite why, when Hartwell's death has set Tommy free, he should be followed by Mariana's ghost, why this supernatural phenomenon should prolong the story which ended logically with the fact that Hartwell's heart was by no means well. But one is disinclined to quarrel with a book that unites so much power and charm, so much insight and kindness and truth.

There is a certain hardness of outline, a certain cold glitter, about "The Orchid" (Scribners), Judge Robert Grant's latest study of American society. Lydia Arnold, the orchid, sells her little girl to her husband for two millions and a half, in order that she may live in comfort with the man whom she believes to love. Why Lydia Arnold should be the subject of a story is not

clear. She is only a rather shallow, rather unscrupulous woman, no better and no worse, and hardly more interesting, than a thousand others. The glamour of millions cannot veil her essential insignificance. Judge Grant's sure touch and craftsmanship are here, but "The Orchid" is hardly a worthy successor to "The Undercurrent."

"The Fire of Spring," by Margaret Potter (Appletons), is a notable study of that vital subject, woman's pre-marital ignorance of her future functions and duties. To be very severe on Mrs. Merrill because she gives her innocent little daughter in marriage to Van Studdiford would be more or less absurd. Genteel poverty is a very harrowing affliction, and it is silly to expect many individuals to rise above the current ethics of their social environment. It is to Mrs. Merrill's credit that she felt any pangs. Though Charles van Studdiford turns out finally to be a thorough gentleman, the more immediate consequences of the marriage are tragic enough. Virginia,—glittering little butterfly,—is suddenly in the hard grip of woman's physical travail. Under that strain, her husband rasps on her, and she irritates him so intolerably that he strikes her. After that there is danger of the story becoming a new version of Paola and Francesca, but the tragedy is checked. "The Fire of Spring" belongs to the very best in the season's American fiction.

That Wall Street has its possibilities of romance, no intelligent observer can doubt. To exploit these possibilities with originality and verve has been the task of Mr. Edwin Lefèvre, author of "The Golden Flood" (McClure, Phillips). The basis of Mr. Lefèvre's romance is sound enough. The suspicion—apparently inevitable—that here was a man in the world who could produce unlimited quantities of gold and thus depreciate

its value indefinitely,—this suspicion would in reality produce just such startling and dramatic effects as it does in Mr. Lefèvre's story. That story, however, has more than its element of uniqueness to recommend it. The studies in the characters of great financiers, Gentile and Jew, are of unusual vividness and verisimilitude.

"The Walking Delegate," by Leroy Scott (Doubleday, Page), is, as its title shows, a study of the labor union as it exists to-day in this country. Mr. Scott joined a

union himself and studied his men at close range, all of which would not have helped him had he not been possessed of true creative power. Buck Foley, walking delegate and most infamous of conceivable blackguards, is one of the most powerful, vivid, and almost tangible characters in the fiction of recent years. He is superbly vigorous and alive. Hardly, if at all, less convincing are the other



LEROY SCOTT.

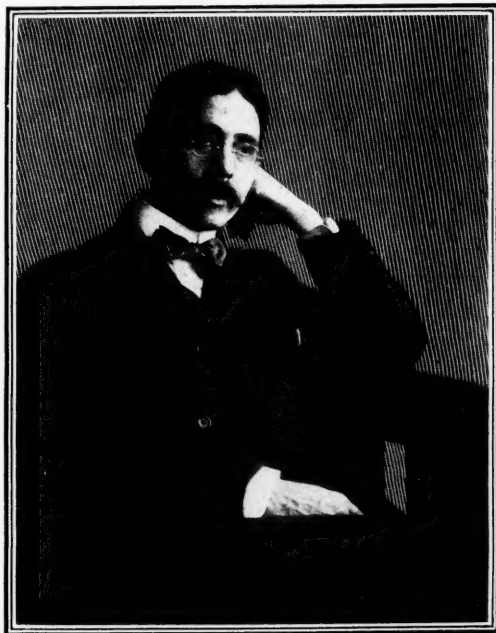
chief, and even minor, characters, above all Tom Keating, bitter enemy of graft and tyranny, who fights the good fight against Foley. Both as a human document and as a work of art, "The Walking Delegate" is a book of extraordinary worth.

"The Digressions of Polly," by Helen Rowland (Baker & Taylor), would be thoroughly delightful did Polly not remind us so irresistibly of a certain Dolly who digressed years ago in the pages of Mr. Anthony Hope. By looking more closely, it will be discovered that Polly has a character of her own, perhaps a little deeper and more real than Dolly's was. She is certainly entertaining, though, perhaps for too many pages.

A feeling, quiet and unobtrusive enough for the pathos of human things, lends dignity and interest to an otherwise not remarkable collection of stories, "The Courtship of a Careful Man," by E. S. Martin (Harpers). The stories deal with familiar aspects of New York life, and hence have, to the "dwellers in Babylon," a slightly extrinsic interest.

"The Purple Parasol," by George Barr McCutcheon (Dodd, Mead), is the story of a young lawyer who is directed to follow and observe, for purposes of criminal investigation, a lady having a purple parasol and various other marks. He does. But the woman followed turns out, in spite of the purple parasol, as not the woman he should have followed. The ending is obvious. Mr. McCutcheon is happier when in "Graustark," but he can hardly stay there always.

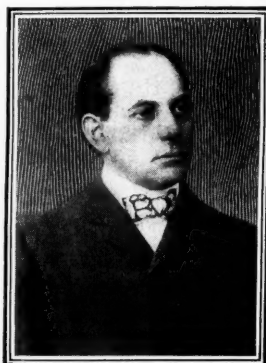
Miss Frances Aymar Matthews is nothing if not prolific. She has two new books this season. "Billy Duane" (Dodd, Mead) is a novel of city politics, love, and various other necessary and constant ingredients of the American novel of the day. It lacks neither rapid movement nor an interesting central theme, but is written in an irritating staccato style (sentences of a few words set off in separate paragraphs), which makes it hard to read.



EDWIN LEFÈVRE.

A really delightful story by the same author is "The Marquise's Millions" (Funk & Wagnalls). The old French ladies, with their dream of the coming of the "eighteenth Louis," are exceedingly well drawn, and the intrigue of the American heiress, whose lover impersonates the "king," is clever and well carried off. Equally well suggested is the atmosphere of blind loyalty and ancient memories in which the ladies live.

Mr. Joseph A. Altsheler is, perhaps, the most admirable writer of political fiction in this country. He really possesses the art of making the reader feel that the great game is worth while,—that it is not ignoble or utterly void of romance. In "Guthrie, of the Times," which was noticed in these pages, Mr. Altsheler treated the politics of the State; in "The Candidate" (Harpers), he turns his attention to national issues. The book is nothing more than the story of the Presidential campaign made by Grayson, who was ultimately elected. And that story is told with an almost prodigious display of intelligence and of power. That last night, when Grayson, his family, and his friends are all awaiting the election returns, and the tension of atmosphere and mood is almost unbearable,—that night and its scenes are genuinely memorable, as truth and as fiction. When our politics are treated in fiction with such largeness of view and such grasp of their romantic possibilities, a real addition to the better class of American literature is necessarily made.



JOSEPH A. ALTSELER.

NOVELS OF THE SOUTH.

In "Constance Trescott" (Century Company), Dr. S. Weir Mitchell has painted, with immense care and elaboration, the full-length portrait of a woman. Constance is extraordinary neither for beauty nor for intellect. Her character is interesting merely through the abnormal intensity in it of primitive instincts,—the instinct for possession and the instinct for revenge. But a few years after the close of the Civil War, Constance and her young husband,—ex-officer in the Federal army,—take up their abode in a small Southern city. Here, at the end of a fierce legal conflict, George Trescott is shot and instantly killed by Greyhurst, opposing counsel and hot-blooded Creole. Greyhurst puts up the conventional plea of self-defense,—which was utterly absurd here,—and is acquitted. It is at this point that all the hidden power and passion of Constance's soul awake. Society will not avenge her wrong; hence she must herself avenge it. A silent, tragic figure, upheld only by her indomitable will, she moves, ruthless to any opposition, toward her end,—the ruin of Greyhurst, body and soul. That end accomplished, she becomes a somewhat peevish, somewhat selfish, woman. Impressive as the book is, one wonders inevitably whether Constance was, after all, worth this expenditure of literary power on the part of Dr. Mitchell.

"The Master Word," by L. H. Hammond (Macmillan), is a study of certain Southern conditions, almost terrible in its austerity. No objection can be made to Mr. Hammond's judgment. But if such ethical severity were to be applied to all men and their sins life could not continue. In such a world as this, our nature being thus and not otherwise, we should rather be glad, with Stevenson, if in the end we have saved some rags and tatters of manliness and honor, and can point to some victories amid many defeats. Philip Lawton became the father of a mulatto child,—a thoroughly bad business, doubtless,—but in his case a mere momentary sin of sense. This very fact should have made Margaret, his wife, forgive him, but it is just this that renders her pitiless. Philip dies, and Margaret sets about repairing irreparable wrong. Her husband has given life to a being who is an outcast from the race to which she belongs by nine-tenths of blood and all of instinct, and who recoils with horror from the negroes with whom she is classed. The conflict between Virey, the half-breed girl, and Margaret, who has no answer to that terrible indictment of a life having been given for which the world has no place,—this conflict Mr. Hammond has described with almost painful intensity and passion. "The Master Word" is a book that stands far above the average of contemporary fiction.

A somewhat more conventional novel of Southern life is "The Ravenels," by Harris Dickson (Lippincott), but the book contains one of the best trial scenes in recent fiction. It may be remarked, *passim*, that no literary genre, since the Elizabethan drama, contains so many trial scenes as the modern American novel,—a fact of some significance and one worth studying. "The Second Wooing of Salina Sue," by Mrs. Ruth McEnery Stuart (Harpers), is another volume of those sketches of negro character which Mrs. Stuart writes so sympathetically and well, even though one at times suspects her of attributing feelings to her black folks of which the latter are quite innocent. The somewhat overworked mill problem of the South furnishes the subject of "Amanda of the Mill" (Dodd, Mead), an interesting but rather improbable story by Mrs. Marie Van Vorst.

THE LIFE LITERARY.

It is quite possible that "The Letters of Theodora," by Adelaide L. Rouse (Macmillan), may not appeal to a very large public. The public to which it does appeal



ADELAIDE L. ROUSE.

will be select and worth having. Theodora is "a sentimental Tommy in petticoats." She is more to us, for she is a thoroughly admirable study of the literary temperament as it exists in America to-day. So true to the facts of life, for that small class of men and women who earn their bread by the sweat of their fountain pens, is Theodora,

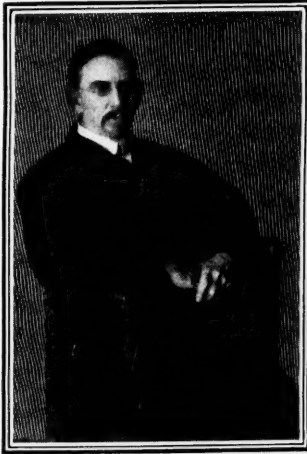
her friends and her fortunes, that to these men and women the book will have an exquisite intimacy of appeal, at least through memory. But the book is more than a tale of dear familiar things to a few. Not many things in contemporary fiction surpass in literary value the seventh letter, in which Theodora tells of a visit to her old home, or the scene in which the uncouth Congressman to whom she has mistakenly become affianced receives the bitter blow of losing her with so much gentleness and strength. If "The Letters of Theodora" is, as it seems to be, almost Miss Rouse's first book, work of a very high order may be expected of her.

TALES OF STRANGE LANDS AND SEAS.

In the days of Baranof and Russian possession, Alaskan life wore an aspect different from its present one. It was in those days that Fedor Kirilovitch Delarof passed over the seas with Anna Gregorovna, learned with sorrow that she was betrothed to another, and yet,

in honorable fashion, won her for himself at last. These details really do not matter very much, seeing that in "The Way of the North," by Warren Cheney (Doubleday, Page), we come at last to an American book that can be enjoyed for its style alone. A harsh critic might say that Mr. Cheney has read his Stevenson very closely. That does not alter the fact that the sharp, swift, clean-cut sentences move with a rounded rhythm that is a perpetual delight to the inner ear. "The Way of the North" is, beyond doubt, the best-written American book of the season.

"Sons o' Men," by G. B. Lancaster (Doubleday, Page), is a volume of very surprising stories. Mr. Lancaster is not a new Kipling, for in that case he would have to be different; but of all who have copied that master's manner, he has certainly succeeded best. Kipling's sublime cocksureness, his equally sublime assumption that he has probed the human heart, the splendid insolence of his syntax,—all these are here in a measure, and the highest compliment that one can pay Mr. Lancaster is to say that, withal, he is not absurd. The stories deal with the men who herd and shear the sheep in South New Zealand and save them from storm and snow at the cost of hardships scarce endurable. At times, too, the native plays a part, as in the striking "Story of Wi," who discovered with scorn the hollowness of the white man's professions and went back to his own folk. It is to be hoped that Mr. Lancaster will find a manner of his own in which to tell his stories in future, which is saying a good deal, even though it is on the side of style, rich or musical or subtle, that our literature seems weakest. Through such books hope grows less forlorn.



WARREN CHENEY.



ERNEST WILLIAM HORNUNG.

tie finish to hold-ups. But his exploits hold little that is memorable.

"Pardners," by Rex E. Beach (McClure, Phillips), and "The Probationer," by Herman Whitaker (Harpers), are two volumes of short stories dealing with the life of the "frozen North" of British Columbia and Alaska. The stories in both volumes are excellent, but singularly lacking in literary individuality. It would be quite possible to shuffle them at will without causing the most careful reader even a slight shock. Especially thoughtful and well wrought are "The Test" in "Pardners" and the title-story of "The Probationers." But the more one reads books such as these,—books that deal with life primitive and elemental,—the more one comes to see how Stevenson and Kipling have, apparently, and for a long time to come, set not only the note of style for such work, but also its intellectual attitude.

A volume of thoroughly good and amusing stories of many seas is "Down to the Sea," by Morgan Robertson (Harpers). Mr. Robertson's rarest gift is undoubtedly his humor, which is especially visible in "Old Man Finnegan,"—a real creation, not to be ranked, as some have foolishly asserted, with such indubitable immortals as Mulvaney, but very real, very human, and capital fun.

HISTORY AND ROMANCE.

To create the atmosphere of a past age without any of the trappings of the historical novel, without war or rumors of war, kings, courts, or captains; to tell of past life upon a storm-swept country-side of marsh and island, and yet to convince the reader inevitably that these things happened in the seventeenth century,—this is assuredly no small achievement in literary art. Miss Una L. Silberrad is to be congratulated upon her volume of stories, "The Wedding of the Lady of Lovell" (Doubleday, Page). Something of the dream-spirit of Norse saga and folklore dwells in the stories, so full are they of atmosphere, of poetry, of true romance. Full of genuine humanity, too, in the sturdy figure of Tobiah, the Dissenter; in the figure of Priscilla, who stole from her stern guardian's house on a May morning and found love; of Mr. Smallpage's John, the bookseller's apprentice, dreaming of a star-like lady

Another volume of Australian stories is "Stingaree," by E. W. Hornung (Scribners). It is not by any means as fresh or as striking as "Sons o' Men." The criminal who is something of a gentleman is not at all new to fiction, and it does not greatly matter whether he carry on his graceful operations in London or in Melbourne. Still, "Stingaree" is undoubtedly a very engaging scamp, who robs with zest and puts an artistic

who was not for him; of the beast-like, superstitious men of the marshes who, in the time of the great sickness, swore that the Lady Placida was Chuma, the Spirit of the Plague. If Mr. Maurice Hewlett cared less for color and passion, more for the subtler poetry of mournful Northern landscapes, he might well have written "The Wedding of the Lady of Lovell."

The time has probably come when it is no longer necessary to notice in detail the more or less conventional historical novel, even when it is as competent and as highly recommended as the late George Gissing's "Veranilda" (E. P. Dutton). Love and intrigue and clash of armor still entertain a numerous public. One need not recommend these elements; to deprecate them is hardly worth while. "The Golden Hope," by R. H. Fuller (Macmillan), is a romance of the time of Alexander the Great, not without signs of ability and interest. "Psyche," by Walter S. Cramp (Little, Brown), is a romance of the reign of Tiberius. It recalls "Quo Vadis," and turns pale in comparison. Judith and Holofernes form the subject of "Judith Triumphant," by Thompson Buchanan (Harpers). "In the Name of Liberty," by Owen Johnson (Century), is a thousand-and-first "Story of the Terror," well and swiftly told, and probably of breathless interest to the unsophisticated mind. "A Prince of Lovers," by Sir William Magnay (Little, Brown), is a Zenda story put back a hundred years. Undiscovered German principalities are said to bring very high prices now,—there are so few left.

Among books of pure romance, the season's best are, probably, "The Dryad," by Justin Huntly McCarthy (Harpers). In a forest near the medieval duchy of Athens, a Dryad meets and loves a charming French

prince, soldier, and lover of spring and poetry. Thus, a faint shimmer from the poetry of antique Greece blends with the glitter and romance of chivalry. The story is told with Mr. McCarthy's usual verve and lightness.

"Hurricane Island" (Doubleday, Page) has been truly said to combine elements belonging to "The Prisoner of Zenda" and to "Treasure Island." The result is a capital romance of love and piracy and hairbreadth escapes very convincingly and

delightfully related. Mr. Marriott-Watson's pirates are singularly good, although Holgate, admirable villain that he is, would have vanished into thin air at one glance of Long John Silver's eyes.

"The Monk's Treasure," by George Horton (Bobbs-Merrill), is a good story of a young American who finds on an island of the "shining Cyclades,"—where he has gone for crude cream of tartar for his uncle's baking-powder factory,—an exquisite Greek servant girl, who turns out to be a duchess, who turns out to be the owner of the monk's treasure. Duchess, treasure, and young American become united and live happily ever after.

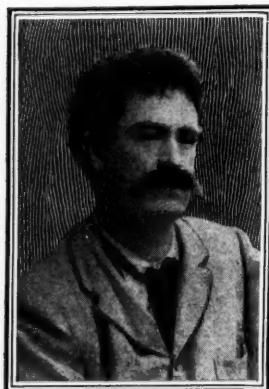
TERROR AND MYSTERY.

With the stories contained in "The Return of Sherlock Holmes" (Scribners), Sir Arthur Conan Doyle has probably closed forever the chronicles of his illustrious (or is it notorious?) detective. The new stories are not so fresh as the old, not so ingenious, nor do they offer that full measure of breathless suspense without which the fiction of crime is only weariness and vexation. Given the now stereotyped method of Holmes, it hardly needed him in person to solve the mystery of the "Three Students," or of the "Priory School," or even of the "Golden Pince-nez," and the helpless dullness of that open-mouthed man of straw, Dr. Watson, becomes more inexcusable and absurd than ever. For all that, we ought to be thankful enough for these latest stories, occasioned by the return of Holmes, and, retrospectively, for the whole series of adventures in which he figures. These form a series of detective stories preëminent in that somewhat shady kind for intelligence, freedom from vulgarity, and an atmosphere of genuine mystery and terror.

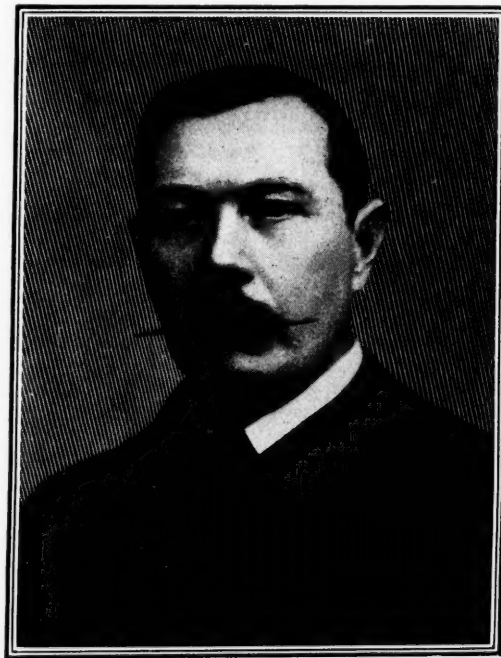
To compare Sherlock Holmes to the hero of "The



UNA SILBERRAD.



H. B. MARRIOTT WATSON.



CONAN DOYLE.

"Millionaire Baby," by Anna Katharine Green (Bobbs-Merrill), is to realize how great a man he really was. Not that "The Millionaire Baby" is without merit. The mystery is complex and original, but the detective who unravels it is such an ass that it is hardly possible to believe in his success.

A very much more notable book is "Art Thou the Man?" by Guy Berton (Bobbs-Merrill). It is the story of a brilliant young lawyer who combines with an intensely intellectual temperament certain fearful pathological desires which lead him to commit nameless crimes. He knows himself, as a human intelligence, to be innocent. The desires are not his to control; they did not come at his bidding: and yet he knows that sooner or later his fate must overtake him. Given an acquaintance with Krafft-Ebing and similar works, the problem was not hard to find. But its working out amid the wild, swift life of Denver lacks neither freshness nor power.

When Mr. H. G. Wells is frankly and simply a teller of tales he is entirely delightful. In his latest volume of stories he has but rarely any prophetic or scientific axe to grind. His stories deal with the marvelous under many aspects, but always in the light of his half-jovious, half-whimsical humor. "Twelve Stories and a Dream" (Scribners) will not lower Mr. Wells' reputation as an imaginative writer, which his previous volume probably did.

"A Mortgage on the Brain," by Vincent Harper (Doubleday, Page), is a singularly interesting study of the problem of dual personality. With obvious seriousness, Mr. Harper holds that the "Ego," as conceived by philosophy, is a fiction; that human personality is a much more fluid and unstable thing than it is usually thought to be. Around this thesis Mr. Harper weaves a strange and fascinating web of incidents, somewhat bewildering in its shifting, glimmering improbability, but none the less suggestive and taking.

In "The Tyranny of the Dark" (Harpers), Mr. Hamlin Garland has succumbed to the lure of the mystical and esoteric. No one seems able to escape it. Indeed, we are told that the events narrated in "The Tyranny of the Dark" are drawn from facts within Mr. Garland's personal experience and observation. That the story of Viola Lambert—medium against her will—lacks genuine literary attractiveness or convincingness on its supernatural side, it would be absurd to deny. Nevertheless, it is a pity that Mr. Garland should have lent the authority of his style and name to things that at best are unproved and hence negligible, and at worst the humbug of swindlers or the raving of people whose only

place is that of clinical material to a specialist in diseased psychology.

IN DARKEST RUSSIA.

"The White Terror and the Red," by Abraham Cahan (A. S. Barnes), is a book that impresses one with its power, competence, and fairness. Mr. Cahan has undertaken to give an account of a certain most interesting phase of the revolutionary movement in Russia,—the spread of the "underground" propaganda during the seventies,—the red terror of revolution and the



MRS. ANNA KATHARINE GREEN.



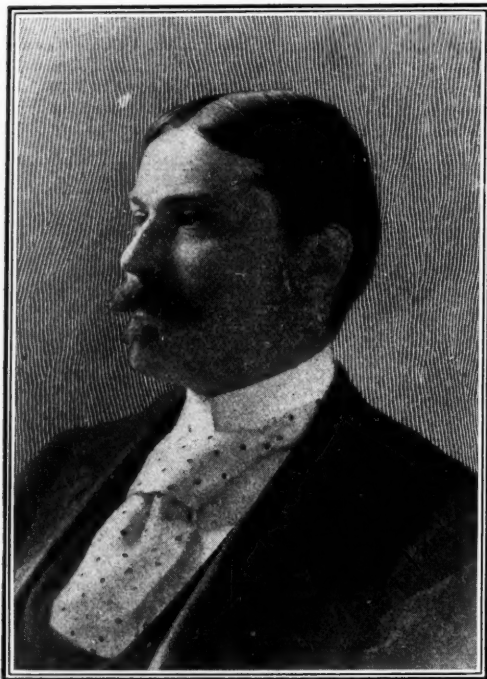
ABRAHAM CAHAN.

white terror of the ruthless government. As a novel, the story of Prince Boulatoff does not rank as highly. It is as a profoundly interesting sociological document that the public may thank Mr. Cahan.

Mr. Ezra S. Brudno, on the other hand, writes with more intensity, a more poignant pity, and a less cool head. Consequently, "The Little Conscript" (Doubleday, Page) is a much more appealing piece of literature than "The White Terror and the Red," but not, we suspect, so trustworthy an account of actual conditions. There is enough of pity and terror, surely, in "The Little Conscript." Mr. Brudno has something of the pitiless power of the great Russian novelists. This appears far more in the character of the peasant, Alyosha, than in the hero, Pavel. Pavel merits all sympathy, but he is just a shade too perfect. But Mr. Brudno's work deserves generous recognition. It is to be remembered that both he and Mr. Cahan had first to acquire as a foreign tongue the language in which they now write.

DUTCH PICTURES.

Mr. Maarten Maartens has painted a series of realistic genre pictures in "My Poor Relations" (Appletons). He has very little mercy on his Dutch peasants. Their life,



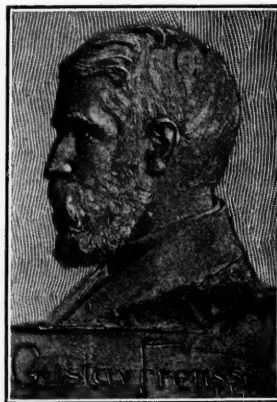
MAARTEN MAARTENS.

as he represents it, is without any glimpses of things fair and of good report. Greed and envy and lust are its dominant factors. Nor does Mr. Maartens care for half-lights, shadings, or suppression. The outlines in his pictures are hard, the colors definite and sharp. But it is this very quality, this stern truthfulness, that, combined with a no less stern suppression of self, gives the stories their high and peculiar quality. One may go so far as to compare them to De Maupassant's, though hardly to that master's best.

A STRONG NOVEL OF MODERN GERMANY.

A German novel the sale of which reaches 200,000 copies is something unheard of. But the unheard of has happened, and the novel is "Jörn Uhl," by Gustav Frenssen, Lutheran pastor in a Holstein village. (The very competent English translation is by F. S. Delmer. Dana Estes & Co., Boston. Archibald Constable, London.) It is very interesting to note that this novel, which has appealed so profoundly and immediately to the German people, is powerful rather than original, deliberately thoughtful and carefully wrought rather than striking; that, finally, it is the culmination, not the creation, of a genre. Up to a certain point, not even the central theme of the book is new. Was not

the fate of Paul in Sudermann's "Frau Sorge" very much the same as Jörn's,—a delicate soul born out of place amid this hard and brawling peasant folk? But Jörn, unlike Paul, works out for himself, through peace and war, sorrow and travail, a triumphant salvation. The strength of the book lies in its style (necessarily lost through translation), severely simple, yet every word and form pregnant with associations of the



GUSTAV FRENSEN.

(Frontispiece reduced.)

Germanic past; in its rich humanity; in its liberal yet by no means revolutionary point of view. Strangest of strange things! Upon the surface, this modern Germany seems given entirely to the worship of new gods whose prophet is Nietzsche. And then comes a simple Lutheran parson, writes in simple German words,—free of all modern tricks and turns,—the story of a "deep and strong" man, who at the end of years of weariness and bitter hardship says: "To have faith

is everything,"—faith, that is, in ultimate good and righteousness and mercy,—and our parson takes the land by storm, is ranked with Goethe, and the "Modernen" at Berlin shake their heads! In this fact lies the significance of "Jörn Uhl," for to call the book great, from a purely literary point of view, would be an obvious exaggeration.

A MODERN UTOPIA.

Very far removed from such fooling as "The Food of the Gods" is Mr. H. G. Wells' latest and, as he tells us, last adventure in prophecy—"A Modern Utopia" (Scribners). The book is an essay rather than a romance, or, as the author would have it, a cross between the two. Whatever it may be, it is an admirable piece of literature and a book of unlimited suggestiveness. It is all the foreshadowing, in part, of an immeasurably far ideal. This Mr. Wells confesses. Yet, to every serious thinker, certain of Mr. Wells' reforms and restrictive measures will seem inevitable—sooner or later. There can be little doubt that the overproduction of inferior human material must, at some not very distant day, receive a violent check. In past ages, war destroyed the unfit, or pestilence, or hunger; in the future, the unfit must not be born. Society must insist on limiting parenthood to the healthy and intelligent. Mr. Wells' exquisitely attractive dream of the "Samurai" who shall be the real rulers of the world is not really new,—many have dreamed of a rule by the truly excellent alone,—but he, for the first time, seems to bring that dream nearer the borders of reality. As literature and as philosophy, "A Modern Utopia" is Mr. Wells' masterpiece.

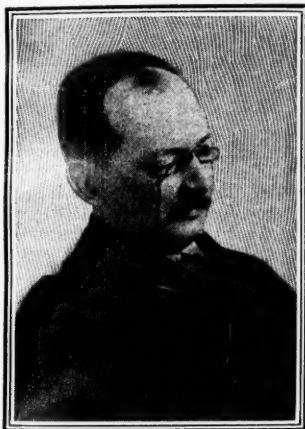


OTHER NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

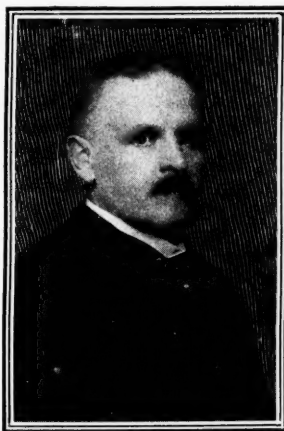
PROFESSOR EDWARD CHANNING, of Harvard University, is the author of a new "History of the United States" (Macmillan), from the discovery of America to the close of the nineteenth century. The first volume, which has just appeared, covers the period



PROFESSOR EDWARD CHANNING.

ending in the year 1660. In his treatment of our colonial history, Professor Channing considers the colonies as parts of the English Empire, and as having simply pursued a course of institutional evolution unlike that of the branch of the English race which remained behind in the old home land across the Atlantic. Believing that the most important single fact in our development has been the victory of the forces of union over those of particularism, Professor Channing traces the evolution of the nation as a story of "living forces" always struggling onward and upward toward that which is better and higher in human conception. Professor Channing's treatment of the colonies and their social institutions is interesting throughout, but is especially strong in those chapters which deal with New England.

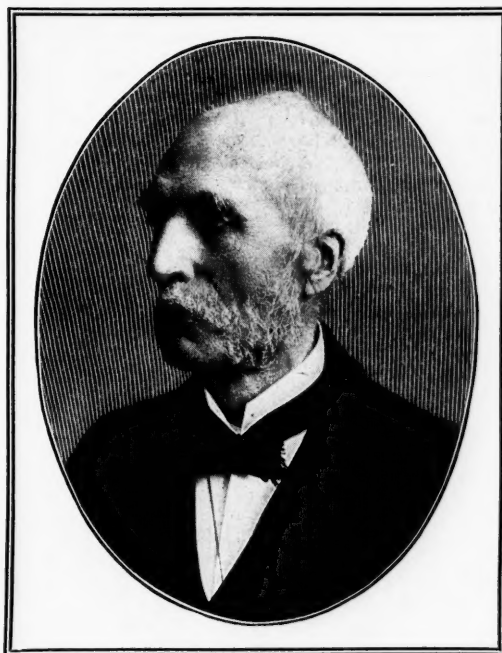
A model "Short History of Venice" has been written by Mr. William Roscoe Thayer (Macmillan), who for many years has been a special student of Italian subjects, and to whom the story of the Venetian Republic has especially appealed as an object-lesson in government. The fact that this little state of three hundred thousand inhabitants was able to establish a colonial empire relatively larger than



WILLIAM ROSCOE THAYER.

the British Empire, and that it carried on a commerce relatively more extensive than the British commerce has ever been, suggests to Mr. Thayer other parallels between Venice and England which add not a little to the interest and effectiveness of his treatment.

"The Aftermath of Slavery" (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.) is a study of the condition and environment of the American negro, by Dr. William A. Sinclair, himself a member of the negro race who was born in slavery. This book gives the educated negro's own view regarding the fitness of his race for full citizenship. It contains a complete record of the civil history of the American negro, showing what the race has done for the country in peace and in war, and what the negro has accomplished for his own uplifting. An introduction is contributed by Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson.



GOLDWIN SMITH.

Mr. Goldwin Smith's "Memories of Gladstone," originally published by Unwin of London, has been imported by the A. Wessels Company. In the opinion of the venerable Canadian writer, Gladstone was "a wonderful being, physically and mentally,—the mental part being well sustained by the physical." Gladstone was in the best sense a man of the people, and "as an embodiment of some great qualities, especially of loyalty to righteousness, he has left no equal behind him."

The ancestors of William H. Prescott had lived for one hundred and fifty years on American soil before the historian was born. They had fought, moreover, to free the colonies from the British yoke. Yet the author of "The Conquest of Mexico," almost half a century after his death, is classed among "English Men of Letters." There is nothing in Prof. Harry Thurston Peck's biographical sketch of Prescott (Macmillan) to confirm this classification; for it appears from this sketch that Prescott was a very good American indeed. By common consent he stands in the first rank of American historians, and the fact that he achieved this eminence in spite of a great physical affliction has caused his name to be doubly honored by two generations of Americans. There are few pages in American biography more inspiring than the record of the blind historian's painfully laborious composition of history, with the assistance of the "noctograph."

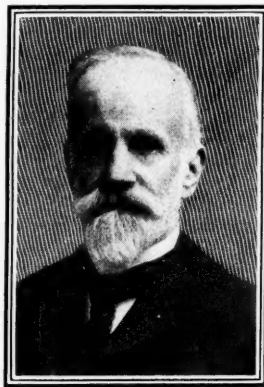
The latest issue of the "Literary Lives" which Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll is editing for the Scribners is the volume on Ernest Renan, by Dr. William Barry, who, it will be remembered, also prepared the volume on Cardinal Newman. The career of the famous French scholar, author, and philosopher is considered under these heads: The Breton Peasant, The Eclipse of Faith, The Scholar in Paris, Galilee and Afterward, In St. Paul's Footsteps, Paris and Jerusalem, Ecclesiastes or the Preacher, and Last Days, Death and Epitaph. While admitting the massive intellect of Renan and his astonishing vitality, Dr. Barry declares that it was a mind which, "looking out into the universe, saw nothing to worship but its own powers, and which ended in absolute negation."

Sir Archibald Geikie, the geologist, has not commonly been classified among the story-tellers, but his volume of "Scottish Reminiscences" (Macmillan) shows us that even the scientist whose business is chiefly with the rocks and their stratification may still have a human side. There is abundance of information in these recollections,—information about live people and their interests. Whatever may be our doubts as to the existence of that elusive entity that we call English humor, the reader of this book will soon be convinced that the quality of the Scottish article is quite beyond question.

THE PANAMA CANAL.

Gen. Henry L. Abbot, U.S.A. (retired), has written a timely volume entitled "Problems of the Panama Canal" (Macmillan). In 1894, General Abbot was appointed a member of the Comité Technique, which was charged with collecting the data upon which to begin the official study of the canal, with the view to induce

capitalists to undertake the completion of the project. Four years later, General Abbot visited Panama and made a personal study of the canal and the Isthmus, and remained a member of the Comité Technique until



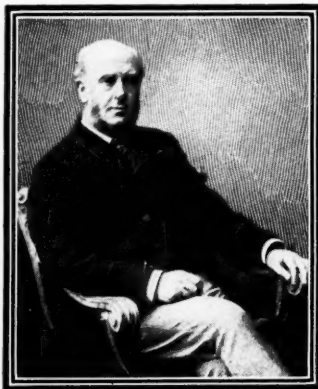
GEN. HENRY L. ABBOT.

the new Panama Canal Company sold its property to the United States, in 1902. In preparing the present work, General Abbot has endeavored to cover every essential element bearing upon the construction of the best possible canal. Having devoted so many years to a technical study of the problem, with unusual facilities for obtaining information, General Abbot is in a position to write an exceptionally helpful treatise on this subject.

The four problems with which he deals in this book are the climate, the Chagres River and the control of its floods, the disposal of the rainfall, and the question of the level of the canal. The general believes that if proper sanitary precautions were taken the yellow fever may be minimized and the Isthmus greatly improved as a place of residence. His solution of the problem of the control of the Chagres River is the creation of two lakes,—one at Alhajuela and another at Bohio,—to hold back, between them, about two hundred and fifty thousand cubic meters of flood-water. The rainfall will be cared for by these artificial lakes, and by others. It is General Abbot's opinion that a canal wholly without locks is impracticable, since the tidal oscillation on the Pacific (about twenty feet) can only be controlled by a lake near Miraflores.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS.

Two little volumes on subjects of great social importance come to us from McClure, Phillips. These are Mr. G. Lowes Dickinson's "Religion: A Criticism and a Forecast," and Prof. Felix Adler's "Marriage and Divorce." Mr. Dickinson's little work was originally a series of articles in the *Independent Review*, of London. These articles were frank and definite discussions of the relation of religion to knowledge. Mr. Dickinson has a clear and suggestive style, and his general position may be indicated by a sentence in his introduction. Assuming a lack of absolute knowledge, and asking whether there is a legitimate attitude toward religion other than that of agnosticism, Mr. Dickinson says: "I have wished to indicate an attitude of what I may call active expectancy,—the attitude of a man who, while candidly recognizing that he does not know and faithfully pursuing or awaiting knowledge and ready to accept it when it comes, yet centers, meantime, his emotional, and, therefore, his practical, life about a possibility which he selects because of its value, its desirability." Professor Adler delivered two lectures before the Society for Ethical Culture of New York, and it is these two lectures which form this little book. Professor Adler does not approve of divorce for any



SIR ARCHIBALD GEIKIE.

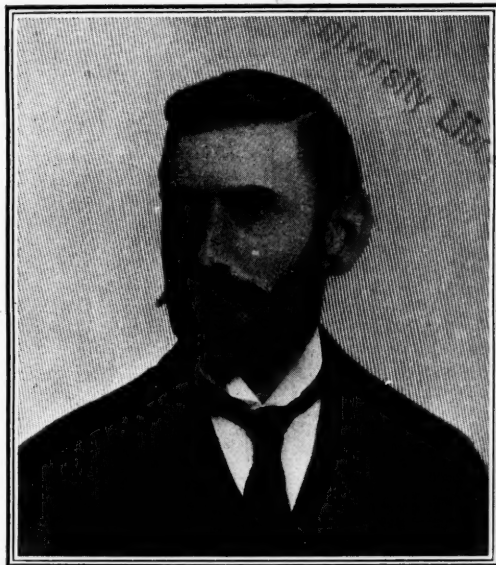
cause whatsoever; he believes separation should be permitted.

A unique treatment of an important subject is Prof. Frederick M. Davenport's study of "Primitive Traits in Religious Revivals" (Macmillan). This is a purely sociological interpretation of revivals, having no evangelistic bias or motive. In his development of this theme the author has introduced accounts of various revivals of this country and Great Britain, such as the Scotch-Irish revival in Kentucky, in 1800, the Scotch-Irish revival in Ulster, in 1859, and the New England awakening originating with Jonathan Edwards. There is also a good chapter on what the author terms the transition period in the United States, — Nettleton, Finney, and Moody. So far from accepting the view that the religious instinct has declined in this country, Professor Davenport maintains that it is only within the last quarter of a century that it has come to its flower in American colleges.

What could be more timely, in view of the discussion that has filled so much newspaper and magazine space for several months past, than a treatise on the modern system of life insurance? Mr. William Alexander has adapted his book on "The Life Insurance Company" (Appletons) to the needs of the average business or professional man, who has heretofore had to rely chiefly on the information dealt out to him by the rival agents, who were primarily interested in securing business for their respective organizations. It is a simple, straightforward exposition of the principles on which all sound insurance is conducted, including a fair and impartial statement of those facts in the history and present management of the great American companies which every prospective policy-holder should know.

The editor of the New York *Observer*, Dr. John Bancroft Devins, recently made a tour of the Philippines to good purpose. His book, "An Observer in the Philippines" (American Tract Society), summarizes what he learned about social conditions in the islands, giving many vivid pen pictures of life among the natives and the American residents. The views of this Protestant clergyman concerning the influence of the friars naturally conflict, to a certain extent, with the opinions formed by American Catholics. Yet these views are temperately expressed, and Catholics generally will not be disposed to quarrel with Dr. Devins' statement of the facts as he sees them. While not committing himself to an unreserved acceptance of everything contained in the book, Secretary Taft gives the work, as a whole, his cordial approval, and expresses the hope that it may have a wide circulation.

A popular, low-priced edition of Sir Horace Plunkett's now famous book, "Ireland in the New Century," has been issued by John Murray (London) and imported



SIR HORACE PLUNKETT.

by the Duttons. Mr. Plunkett's aim in this volume has been "to bring into clearer light the essential unity of the various progressive movements in Ireland, and to do something toward promoting a greater definiteness of aim and method and a better understanding of each other's work among those who are in various ways striving for the upbuilding of a worthy national life in Ireland." The reasons for Ireland's failure to rise to her opportunities, and to give practical evidence of the intellectual qualities with which the race is admittedly gifted, are, Mr. Plunkett declares from a long study of Irish life, "due to certain defects of character—not ethically grave, but economically paralyzing." These defects are, he declares, a lack of moral courage, initiative, independence, and self-reliance. He believes that the new movements in Ireland, which have a common aim and should be coördinate, "exert a stimulating influence on Irish moral fiber." The original edition of this work excited a great deal of adverse comment,—chiefly, Mr. Plunkett informs us in the new edition, from those who had not read it. In the new edition, he emphasizes again his central idea—"the application to Ireland of the principle that all true national progress must rest upon a moral foundation." The volume begins with a chapter on "The English Misunderstanding," and traces the whole question of politics, religion, economics, and education to the final chapter, which is on "Government with the Consent of the Governed."

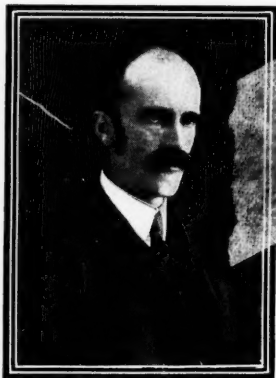
Mr. A. C. Pigou, lecturer in economics at Cambridge University, England, has written a treatise entitled "Principles and Methods of Industrial Peace" (Macmillan). In this work the author considers the question of not what have arbitration and conciliation done, but rather what ought they to do, and how ought they to do it. Many references made by the writer show that he has familiarized himself with recent writings of American students, and especially with the report of the United States Industrial Commission.



DR. JOHN BANCROFT DEVINS.

A STUDY OF WILD BIRDS.

Those who read the article by Mr. Herbert K. Job in the April REVIEW OF REVIEWS on "Bird-Hunting with the Camera" will be pleased to learn that a volume of Mr. Job's recent writings on this subject, illustrated from his own photographs, has been published under the title of "Wild Wings" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). An introductory letter by President Roosevelt, which was published, by permission, in connection with the REVIEW OF REVIEWS article, speaks in the highest terms of Mr. Job's work, and commends the substitution of the camera for the gun. Such books as this are likely to do a great deal to promote an increased interest in this form of sport, to say nothing of the intrinsic value of the pictures themselves and the accompanying text. Many of Mr. Job's photographs of wild birds are here reproduced for the first time. In some instances the birds are not known to have been photographed before in wild life. Mr. Job's adventures as a camera hunter, from the Magdalen Islands, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to the Florida Keys and the Dry Tortugas, are quite as entertaining as most hunters' stories.



HERBERT K. JOB.

POETRY AND MUSIC.

A little collection of poems with much promise is the "Gedichte," by Georg Sylvester Viereck, a young German-American boy who is now in a New York college, but who has done some real poetic work. There is an introduction, or, rather, an appreciation, to the collection by Mr. Ludwig Lewi-sohn. As Mr. Lewi-sohn points out, Viereck has originality, power, and imagination.

Two new issues of the "Musician's Library" (Ditson) are "Selections from the Musical Dramas of Richard Wagner" and "Twenty-four Negro Melodies." The selections from Wagner have been arranged by Otto Singer, and cover every opera from "Rienzi" to "Parsifal," making a total of twenty-five numbers. There is an introduction by Richard Aldrich, and the frontispiece is a portrait of the composer reproduced from the last photograph ever taken of him. The negro melodies



GEORGE SYLVESTER VIERECK.

are transcribed for the piano by S. Coleridge-Taylor. There are twenty-four transcriptions of folk-melodies, both African and American, used as themes for compositions in the style of fantasies. Coleridge-Taylor has preserved the distinctive character of these melodies, but has given them a form and finish. There is a brief biographical introduction to each.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

The current issue of that most useful volume, "The Statesman's Year-Book," is the forty-second annual publication (Macmillan). Dr. J. Scott Keltie, the editor, has improved this annual from year to year, and the issue for 1905 is the best yet. Some of the improvements especially valuable are those in the way of subdivision and detailed information. For example, the Commonwealth of Australia is now treated collectively. There is also a recasting and revision of Anglo-French relations, with particular reference to the convention of 1904 as affecting the British colonies, Siam, Egypt, and Morocco. Increased attention is given to Germany, especially with regard to education, and scope for this is gained by cutting the space formerly given to the small German states. The matter on China has been thoroughly revised, and the dependencies of that empire (especially Tibet) are treated separately. Turkey has also been largely rewritten, and the islands of Formosa and the Philippines receive much fuller treatment. The naval situation of the powers at war in the far East is thoroughly canvassed, and helpful statistics and tables are presented. There are maps and diagrams showing British military and naval distribution, proposed railways in the near East, the new frontiers in South America, and the cotton, wheat, and live-stock areas of the world. The whole work has been subjected to thorough revision and correction.

A brief but comprehensive and useful "Pocket Guide to Europe" has been edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman and Thomas L. Stedman (William R. Jenkins). It has been thoroughly revised and brought up to date, and contains an entirely new railroad map of Europe. One of the best features of it is that it is really of a size to fit the pocket.

"Collier's Self-Indexing Annual" for 1905 (New York: P. F. Collier & Son) is an illustrated record of contemporary history. Special departments of the work are: political history; labor, industry, and commerce; science and invention; the fine arts, drama, and music; sports and pastimes; and education, religion, and sociology. Many brief biographical sketches are included, and a special section is devoted to the necrology of the past year. There is a complete diary of the Russo-Japanese war down to the beginning of 1905.

One of the most useful books of reference which come to us from the other side of the Atlantic is "The Municipal Year-Book" of the United Kingdom, edited by Mr. Robert Donald (London: Edward Lloyd, Ltd.). In addition to the chapters on London municipal government, municipal government in England and Wales, municipal government in Scotland, and local government in Ireland, there are special sections of the book devoted to water supply, gas supply, tramways, electricity supply, housing of the working classes, markets, telephones, baths and wash-houses, education, libraries, cemeteries, sewage disposal, local taxation returns, and municipal trading. Each of these sections contains material of special interest and value to American students of municipal problems.

